The Outlook

AUGUST 7, 1918

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ELIMINATING HEARST

When the Democrats of New York gathered in State Convention to designate candidates for the forthcoming primaries, there was genuine fear on the part of the best elements in the party that William Randolph Hearst might be named for Governor. Once before this man had been a candidate for the Governorship, and had been beaten; but now, after the experience of last fall, when, through the Hearst influence, Mr. Hylan was made the Tammany candidate for Mayor of New York City, that did not appear to stand in the way. What did stand in the way was a courageous and dramatic act by Judge Seabury. Once upon a time Judge Seabury had the hearty approval of the Hearst papers, but after what happened at the Convention no reader of the Hearst papers would have suspected it.

The Convention had been called to order, but had not yet adopted its rules of procedure when Judge Seabury came forward with a resolution in his hand and addressed the Chairman. He was declared out of order, but he persisted. Finally, when after some confusion the rules were adopted, Judge Seabury was given the floor, and he presented his resolution, as follows:

> *Resolved*, That this conference of Democrats of the State of New York do renew to the President of the United States their whole-hearted support and confidence in his magnificent struggle to make the world safe for democracy; and as an earnest of their loyalty repudiate every truckler with our country's enemies who strives, or has striven, to extenuate or excuse such crimes against humanity as the rape of Belgium, the sinking of the Lusitania, and the German policy of assassination by submarines; who seeks or has sought to sow dissension among our allies, or who now seeks to capitalize by election to public office the latent treason whose total annihilation is the most pressing need of the hour.

The resolution was adopted unanimously. From that time forth the possibility of the Hearst nomination by this informal Convention was removed. It is true that the Hearst petitions for the primaries continue to be circulated; but there is no one who believes that even if those petitions are not withdrawn the Hearst nomination can be carried. The choice of the Convention was Alfred E. Smith. A sketch of him and his relation to Tammany Hall, of which he is a member, was printed in The Outlook last week. As we said in commenting upon the Convention, Mr. Smith was the candidate of the greatest inherent strength. Mr. William Church Osborn, who had announced himself as a candidate, had the support of most of the reform element in the party; but he declined to have his name presented to the Convention, preferring to run in the primaries without having his name submitted to a conference that had no legal power. Mr. Smith's designation by the Convention, however, is generally regarded as equivalent to a nomination, for the prestige of this designation will carry great weight with the Democratic voters. Moreover, Mr. Smith has the backing, of course, of Tammany Hall, and has not incurred the antagonism either of the reform element or of the Hearst influence. If a Tammany man was to be nominated, no better choice could have been made.

GOVERNMENT CONTROL OF TELEGRAPHS

As was expected, President Wilson has placed Mr. Burleson, Postmaster-General, in control of the country's telegraph system. The President has directed the Postmaster-General to retain the present staff of the wire services and to do the work under existing corporate organizations—a wise provision. We do not learn that our new telegrams are to be stamped, as in England, and, if so, whether we are to buy stamps at the post office.

Under Government control our telegraph system, we hope, will show the same economy and efficiency to the ordinary telegram-sender as has long been shown by the British system.

A fear on the part of some persons otherwise well disposed toward Government control is that whatever inefficiency there has been in our postal system will be exhibited in Government control of the wire systems.

And, what is more, not a few of these critics look upon the future with apprehension as bringing about an enormous bureaucracy. As acquisition of the telegraphs does not necessarily mean Government ownership, or even Government operation except in management (as in the case of the railways), it certainly should not mean a "political telegraph." We do not believe that there is ground for concern lest Government management will mean diminution of the ingenuity and energy which have improved and enlarged our telegraph service in recent years by the introduction of such conveniences as night letters, day letters, and cable letters. The transfer of the telegraph system from private to public management is in the line of natural progress, and will prove, we believe, to be in the public interest.

LESS SUGAR, MORE WHEAT

Sugar has become an essential element to the success of the war.

Its supply in America—in homes, stores, bakeries, factories—is at a low ebb, for the production from our beet and cane crops has been disappointing; the yield in the West Indies has also been smaller than was anticipated. We are unable to secure sugar from Java and other distant points because of the imperative call for vessels for the transport of troops.

And yet the quantity needed by our Army and Navy greatly exceeds earlier estimates. So does the quantity for which there is necessity in France and Italy, since through the German and Austrian invasion much beet land was overrun and many factories destroyed. Finally, to add to our difficulties, over fifty million pounds of sugar were recently lost by submarine sinkings off the Atlantic coast.

Despite all these factors, the maintenance of the ration to our own soldiers and sailors and to those of our allies, as well as the avoidance of reducing the allotments to the Allied civil populations, depends on ourselves. Those populations are doing the best they can. England allows two pounds a person a month. France allows a pound and a half. Italy allows one pound.

The Food Administration has now announced that the sugar ration in the households of this country from August 1 to January 1 will be cut to two pounds a person a month, in order to secure a sufficient supply for our fighting forces and our allies. The announcement comes during the canning season, and housewives will be aghast when they read the recommendation of Mr. Hoover, the Food Administrator, that canning without sugar should be done wherever possible. With prospects of increased supplies after November 1, sugar may then be added with some freedom.

Close on the heels of this announcement came another from Mr. Hoover. He notified the managers of hotels, restaurants, clubs, and dining-cars that after August 1 they may disregard their pledge to serve no wheat until harvest. This pledge was given at a critical time last March. Our wheat surplus had practically all been exported. The pledge of the hotel men and caterers, faithfully kept, has resulted, so it is estimated, in the saving of nearly 200,000,000 pounds of wheat and its products

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to the common store, besides millions of pounds of meats and of sugars.

Now that the new wheat crop is coming into the market, now that reserves have been accumulated, now that the facilities of transportation have been improving, we have the new regulation. But this does not mean at all that men and women are to discontinue using Victory bread, which contains one-fifth or more of substitutes for wheat.

THE FOOD VICTORY

While Food Administrators of the Allies were in conference, Mr. Hoover, at a luncheon given in his honor in London on July 23, announced definitely: "We can say emphatically that all anxiety as to the great essentials of food is now past." He had already, in a letter to the President dated July 11, stated facts which prepared the public for his announcement.

It would be confusing to multiply figures; but some figures are necessary to understand what a great victory has been won. Last year, it is within the bounds of careful statement to say, England was face to face with famine. Last March the situation in England was still alarming. When it was announced that all our surplus wheat had already been shipped to our allies, Lord Rhondda, then the English Food Administrator, remarked, according to a report, that the end of the war had come. What the United States has since sent to England has kept that country going, and all this has been saved out of what we otherwise would have consumed ourselves. For the fiscal year of 1917–18 shipments of meats and fats to the Allied countries amounted to 3,011,100,000 pounds, an increase over the preceding year of 844,600,000 pounds. An almost equally proportionate increase is shown in our shipments of cereals. What is most remarkable is that we have made these shipments in spite of the fact that last year there was a large failure in wheat and our corn did not mature properly. Mr. Hoover says that for the fiscal year just closed the total nutritional production of the country fell below the average of the three previous years to an amount between seven and nine per cent. So there has been a great reduction in our consumption and waste of food.

Has it been worth while for us to save? In the midst of what was abundance for us we have been going without our usual amount of wheat and sugar and meats. It has been uncomfortable at times, particularly for housewives who have had to plan the meals; but it has been interesting and in many ways profitable. We like to think of it as a hardship, because that gives us a feeling of satisfaction; but it has been no real hardship, and hardly a discomfort. At the same time, it has been a real sacrifice, and we have sometimes wondered whether it has been worth while. There is no doubt about it. It has won a great victory. Without this it is doubtful whether our arms could be victorious. "It is difficult," says Mr. Hoover in his letter, "to distinguish between various sections of our people—the homes, public eating-places, food trades, urban or agricultural populations—in assessing credit for these results, but no one will deny the dominant part of the American women."

Mr. Hoover modestly makes no mention of himself; but his is the credit more than any other one man's. He has secured this result from a naturally self-indulgent people. We Americans have never been economical in our food, and we have been somewhat spoiled by our abundance; and it was Mr. Hoover's task to get such a people to deny themselves for the sake of winning a fight carried on in battlefields three thousand miles away. Mr. Hoover went at his task in just the way that we Americans are proud to have an American do. He proved that a self-governing people can be self-restrained. He proved that this kind of self-restraint is a great deal more effective than any amount of so-called autocratic efficiency. The German hangs up signs labeled, *Verboten*. Mr. Hoover hung up signs telling people what they could and ought to do. And to-day we and our allies have food and enough, while Germany, with all her Russian conquests, is suffering from malnutrition and starvation. As Mr. Hoover said last week at the luncheon in London, "One outstanding fact is perceived within the enemy's lines—namely, hunger."

For this proof of the superiority of democratic methods over the methods of military autocracy the country will, and should, acknowledge the leadership of President Wilson. It is the President who appointed Mr. Hoover, and it is the President who has backed him up and given him power. It is one of the most remarkable achievements of the war that has been accomplished by Mr. Hoover under the President's sanction and authority. And it is a true interpretation of this that the President himself has made in a message delivered from him by Mr. Hoover in London, as follows:

"The American people will gladly make any sacrifice in consumption and production of foodstuffs that will maintain the health, comfort, and courage of the people of the Allied countries. We are, in fact, eating at the common table with them."

This good news of victory should not lead us to relax our efforts. There is need of continued practice of economy. The success of what we have done, so far from making us careless, should give us cause for continued effort by showing us that what we are doing is indispensable to victory.

TWO KINDS OF PROFITEERS

We are not yet producing our quota of munitions, ships, and supplies. Yet last week some forty thousand working men and women were idle, largely because of disagreements as to wages, despite the fact that wages are higher than ever.

The profiteers are not all in one class. We are fairly familiar with the contemptible class of men who, taking advantage of the Government's need, have increased their wealth by deft manipulations and dexterous forcing of contracts. We are less familiar with the wage-earning profiteer who, taking advantage of the Government's need, refuses to work and "holds up" his employers for better terms.

This is not applicable, of course, to all wage-earners. It is not even applicable to some of the forty thousand above mentioned. The National War Labor Board has investigated or is investigating most of the cases at issue. In two important issues it has decided in favor of the men. In the controversy between the Worthington Pump and Machinery Company, at East Cambridge, Massachusetts, the paramount issue was the application of the basic eight-hour day. The Board decided that this eight-hour day should be installed at once, at the same time announcing that it would consider the matter of the determination of what should be fixed as the proper working day. In the case of eight tool and machine plants at Waynesboro, Pennsylvania, the Board's award gives many of the workers great wage increases.

In the threatened strike of the Sailors' Union of the Great Lakes and of the Marine Firemen, Oilers, and Water-Tenders' Union, which would have called out some ten thousand men, the Board had already ruled against forcing employers to recognize the unions if the unions were not interfered with when they organized by peaceful means, and the Lake Carriers' Association had met the men's demands in regard to abolishing blacklists; moreover, an agreement concerning overtime had been reached. This did not satisfy the union men. In this exigency Mr. Hurley, Chairman of the Federal Shipping Board, sent a message to the unions telling them that the men must remain at their posts. In other words, the men should not take advantage of the Government's need to advance their own interests. While the right of workers to organize trade unions and to bargain collectively through chosen representatives is recognized under the principles to be observed in the President's proclamation creating the National War Labor Board, and while membership in trade unions is not to be a cause for the discharge of men, the proclamation also provides that no coercive measures of any kind shall be used to force persons to join labor unions, and that in industries where union and non-union men are now working together the continuance of such conditions is not to be deemed a grievance.

A strike on the Great Lakes would be a menace to our National safety. A stoppage of the movement of the Lake carrier vessels would cut off the supplies of ore needed in the manufacture of plates for ship-building, would jeopardize the movement of wheat to our Army abroad and to our allies, and would tie up great shipments of coal, iron ore, and other supplies vital to the conduct of the war. We are glad that this

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strike has now been averted and that the paper-makers' strike bids fair to be settled by the War Labor Board.

It would be a pity if, unlike the other workers whose demands have been recognized as legitimate by the War Labor Board, any unionists should come to be regarded through their own ill-advised action and in the absence of further justification as labor profiteers.

THE STRIKE OF THE BRITISH MUNITIONS WORKERS

The skilled workers in British munition factories who have been threatening a strike on a large scale yielded to the logic and determination of the Prime Minister. The cause of complaint was a so-called embargo laid by the Government on certain companies making munitions. The nature of this embargo has not been very clearly explained in the despatches, but, as we understand the matter, it limits the number of skilled workers who may be taken on by companies having already as many as they should have in proportion to the part of the work they are doing as compared with the total amount of such work required for the whole country. Naturally, the thing that the Government has in mind is to make sure of an even and steady supply of shells for the guns.

The men who object to the embargo say that their liberty to sell their labor to the best advantage is restricted by it. The Government says that the men are trying to dictate in opposition to an essential national policy.

Mr. Lloyd George's action in dealing with this strike was clear-cut and decisive. The men threatened to stop work, and many of them did so. Mr. Lloyd George thereupon declared that those who were absent after Monday, July 29, would thereby place themselves outside the protection of the Government as munition workers. The protection certificates they held would automatically lapse, and they would instantly become liable to military service. It is probable that patriotism as well as protection have had appeal to the workers. The less-skilled workers, and notably the women workers, protested earnestly against the strike and held demonstrations in opposition. Taken as a body of men and women, the munition workers of England have made a fine record for themselves. They have worked long hours, have put their heart in their work, and have for the time waived certain industrial privileges. It was not likely that now, when they fully understand what is at stake and what unity of effort between the Government and the workers means, they would prove recalcitrant. They have gone back to work and the questions at issue will go before a mediation commission.

THE RETREAT OF THE GERMANS

The second battle of the Marne bids fair to become the second battle of the Aisne. By July 30 the German forces were several miles north of the Marne at their nearest point to that river; the Allies were astride the Ourcq; they had occupied the important center of Fère-en-Tardenois (although the Germans apparently were still actively fighting in its outskirts), and a very considerable portion of the whole Marne salient was in our possession—nearly or quite half of the territory in the salient reckoned from a line drawn along the Vesle River from Soissons to Rheims. Every indication is that the German forces will continue to retreat, fighting fierce rear-guard actions as they go, until they reach the line of the Vesle River, the central points of which are Fismes and Braisne. Here they may make a stand, or very probably they may still retreat a few miles farther north to the line of the Aisne. One thing that makes the latter course probable is the fact that the Vesle is a narrow and fordable stream.

The substantial advantage gained by the Allies in this offensive is not so much in the actual land occupied as in the thwarting and breaking up of Germany's attempts to win by every desperate effort this summer. First Foch blocked the threatened thrusts at the Channel and toward Paris; now he has pushed back the enemy from ground already taken. Exact figures as to the relative loss in men are not available, but some authorities place the German loss at over two hundred thousand. The German loss in machine guns, field artillery, and munitions is stupendous; their slow and sullen retreat has obliged them to abandon munition dumps almost mountain high and supplies incalculable in amount. Another positive gain is the fact that no longer does the tip of the salient stretch out toward Paris, as has been said, like the point of a dagger. The nearest point of the German line to Paris is, as we write, about twelve miles farther north than when our offensive began—not an enormous distance, to be sure, but a decrease of a quarter from the former propinquity.

The great value to the Allies of this terrible battle has been well expressed by Mr. Frank Simonds as "the dislocation of German plans." That is, Foch "undertook to smash the German plans and turn a dangerous offensive into a considerable retirement." He has done just this. It is hardly probable that Germany can in the brief period left before the heavy autumn rains begin reorganize her forces and put into effect any seriously dangerous blow at Allied unity and military safety. And every week sees the Allies' strength increase by American arrivals, while it is fair to assume that Germany's reinforced army of 1918 is gradually losing in quantity and quality.

The American effort in the Marne salient has been invariably steady and vigorous. American troops have now faced regiments of the much-vaunted Prussian Guards and of the veteran Bavarian Guards and have held their own against these, the flower of the Kaiser's army. It was a soldier of New York's old 69th Regiment (now the 165th) who first crossed the Ourcq. Americans were in the fierce fight about the town of Sergy, which six times changed hands in battle, but remained, at last accounts, in possession of French and Americans. At Fère-en-Tardenois Americans did yeomen work. Nowhere did they shirk or falter; they are now no longer raw troops, but battle-hardened soldiers of the first grade. Two new corps of American forces have been organized, the Fourth and Fifth. Thus about 750,000 fighting men are included in the corps organization, while men of all the first numbered three corps have actually been engaged in battle.

THE ALLIES' ARMY IN SIBERIA

While diplomats in the United States and Japan are debating how best to make a new eastern front, to hit Germany hard, and at the same time to help and save Russia, the Czechoslovak army in Siberia is gaining strength, is holding the Siberian Railway, and is furnishing a camp and a flag for the foes of Germany. An important decision was made last week by the Czechoslovak National Council. As we have already told our readers, this army of Bohemians and others is made up chiefly of prisoners taken by the Russians, released when Russia stopped fighting, and allowed to move north and east toward the Pacific. It did not mean to fight the Bolsheviki, but Bolshevik forces have attacked it. It meant to become part of the Allied force on the western line, but it seems to be needed more in Siberia. Five weeks ago The Outlook pointed out that this seemed to be the true mission of the Czechoslovak army.

The commander of the Czechoslovaks, acting under the instruction of the Czechoslovak National Council, has now instructed the leaders in Siberia to stay there for the present and to watch events. Professor Masaryk, who is President of the National Council, and therefore in supreme control, is now in America. His despatch to Siberia relates in full the circumstances (briefly outlined above) which have led to these forces coming into control of a large part of the Trans-Siberian Railway and of the country round about the Volga River. He quaintly remarks: "They were like Saul, who went to seek his father's asses and found a kingdom."

These brave soldiers are enrolled under the French military control, and are willing to obey orders from France. When the Bolshevik cabal of class absolutists shall lose their despotic grip of some Russian centers, an army of Allied troops eager to fight and perfectly ready to be executed as "traitors" to Austria will be a mighty handy thing to have in Russia or over the imaginary line between Russia and the new Siberian Republic.

THE BATTLE OF THE JUSTICIA

The great transport Justicia met her fate only after a stubborn and prolonged battle in which submarines, destroyers,

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and transports bore a part. This sea fight lasted from late Friday night, July 19, until ten o'clock Saturday morning. It is said that six or more submarines were engaged, and some reports state that three torpedoes hit the Justicia. During the night the fight ceased for a time, to be resumed when daylight came.

In every way this was a remarkable and really unique sea battle, for never before has there been anything like a general engagement between naval vessels and submarines. Another extraordinary thing was the small loss of life; the Justicia lost no passengers and only eleven out of seven hundred members of the crew.

This engagement took place off the west coast of Ireland. The Justicia was returning to this country. It is a noteworthy fact that out of eight transports destroyed by submarines since the United States entered the war the Tuscania was the only one to be caught on her voyage to Europe. The crowning feat of American effort in sending American troops abroad has been the trivial loss, comparatively speaking, among the million and a quarter men transported in the teeth of the submarine.

Almost simultaneously with the loss of the Justicia there was published the record of losses by submarine during the month of June. The record of loss is the lowest for fifteen months. There is shown also a total decrease in Allied loss of 81,905 tons over the preceding month. The British have raised 400 ships of over 1,200 tons each since October, 1915. Thus it seems that the total gross loss from the once terrifying submarine campaign is decreasing, while at the same time the increase of Allied ship-building is encouraging and, moreover, the day of quantity production of shipping in the United States is close at hand.

It is not unnatural that the occasional loss of a fine transport like the Justicia on her way back calls out demands for protection to returning ships equal in efficacy to that given ships sailing eastward. But we must consider the main object and the splendid results of the whole troop movement. No one not fully informed should be rash and foolish enough to criticise the naval handling of this question by Great Britain and the United States. Unless proof is shown to the contrary, we should believe, and do believe, that our sea power is being used wisely and skillfully. As a fact, not more than one in two hundred convoyed ships has been lost.

THE MOB SPIRIT AND LYNCHING

President Wilson's personal appeal to his fellow-countrymen distinctly refers to a common cause—namely, ungoverned passion and mob excitement—both ill treatment of persons suspected of spying or treason and of lynchings not relating to war conditions. It is a fact that the lynching of Negroes has lately increased. The careful record kept at Tuskegee Institute shows that for the first six months of this year the total number of lynchings is thirty-five, as compared with fourteen for the same months in 1917—an increase of more than one hundred per cent. Whether this is merely sporadic or has some relation to the fever of war time is doubtful. Three of these victims were women, only one person was white, only eight (less than a quarter) were charged with rape. Only one Northern State (Illinois) had a lynching recorded in the period.

President Wilson, with his usual happy phrasing, stigmatizes the mob spirit as "a blow at the heart of ordered law and humane justice." The injury to our own cause of violence against those suspected, often quite unjustly, of disloyalty is well expressed by the declaration that "every mob contributes to German lies about the United States what her most gifted liars cannot improve upon by way of calumny."

We have already called attention to the wholesome movement in the South against lynch law, to the excellent resolution passed by the Tennessee Conference of Charities and Correction asking the President to issue a special proclamation on lynching—and to this the President's appeal is a fine response—and to the attempt to induce Congress to pass laws under which the United States itself should protect against lynching where the State does not do its full duty.

Wild mob rage is the very antithesis of the calm courage of a fighting nation.

COLLEGE MEN AND THE WAR

The War Department is behind a campaign which it regards as important to the future welfare of the country. It is called the "Keep the Boy in College" campaign. The War Department is interested in this because it realizes that if the war continues there will be need of trained officers who can be best fitted in college for their military service, and when the war ends victoriously there will be need of the services of men who have had college training. It is most definitely as a war measure that this campaign is carried on.

Unless for very special reasons, the boy who is preparing to enter college this year should carry on his purpose and should begin his college course, and those who have been in college for a year or so should, by all means, continue their courses if they can. The colleges and universities of the country are working with the War Department to provide that special training which will make good officers. The best officers are not those who have had nothing but military experience. It is rather those who have a broad intellectual background. It is this combination of military with intellectual training that the colleges and universities are undertaking. If the able-bodied college man is under twenty-one and over eighteen, he is free to enlist voluntarily in the National Army through his university. Such a student-soldier receives no pay or subsistence, but receives equipment and uniform. He is subject to call, and is a definite part of the military service. If he is under eighteen, he may not enlist, but he may enroll. This is as a result of an arrangement between the colleges and the War Department Committee on Education and Special Training.

In this way the natural desire of the young American to take his part may in a measure be satisfied, and at the same time the man power of the country will be conserved and the country will not be deprived in the near future of men who should be equipped for industry, for professions, and for military advancement.

THIRTY BILLIONS IN APPROPRIATIONS

The appropriations made during the Second Session of the Sixty-fifth Congress surpass all records. They include appropriations for the fiscal year 1919. They show authorizations for expenditures of a sum of over $29,791,000,000—only a little short of $30,000,000,000.

This does not mean, however, that the amount of expenditures in the next fiscal year will reach such a total. It is probable that the expenditures will be five or six billion dollars less.

In this connection it is interesting to note that our regular appropriation bills amount to nearly $23,000,000,000, of which the Navy Appropriation Bill represents about $1,500,000,000, and the Army Bill nearly eight times as much. The urgent deficiency measures come to almost $2,000,000,000 more. In addition, among other items, there are the appropriations of $4,000,000,000 to our allies and for interest on the public debt. There are also half a billion dollars each for the Government operation of the railways and for the work of the War Finance Corporation.

SAVING PAPER

Economy in the use of paper is hereafter to be the watchword both of newspapers and of magazines and weekly periodicals. The Government, through its War Industries Board, requires newspaper publishers and requests publishers of periodicals to institute sweeping changes in publishing methods. Those newspapers which publish a daily and weekly edition have been instructed to discontinue the acceptance of the return of unsold copies, the use of sample or free promotion copies, free copies to advertisers (except one copy to each advertiser), free exchanges, gratuitous copies, and certain payments of commissions to newsdealers and agents.

Much the same thing has been requested from periodical publishers, but as yet not positively required. The Periodical Publishers' Association, however, we are glad to say, has voluntarily agreed that its members should accept the new restrictions, with certain limitations which grow out of the difference

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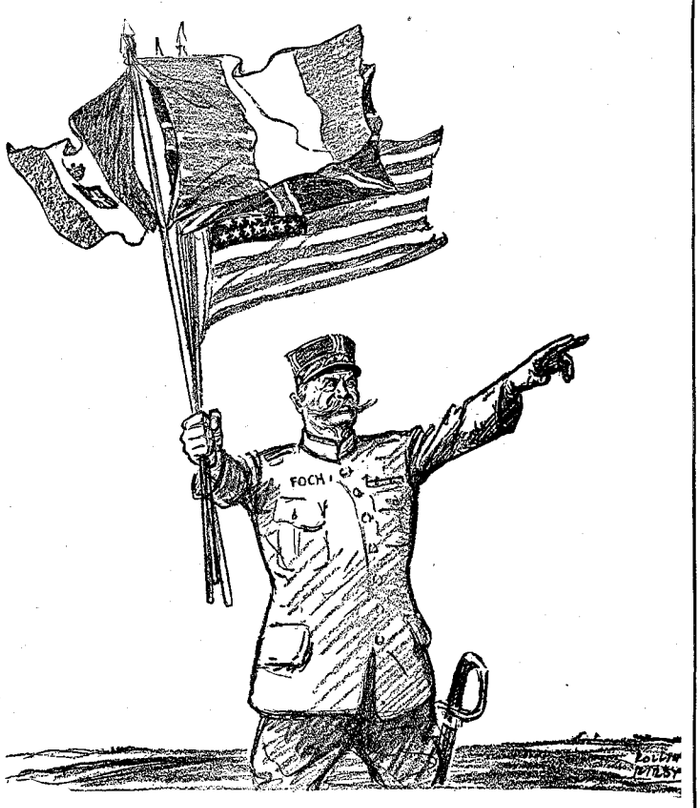
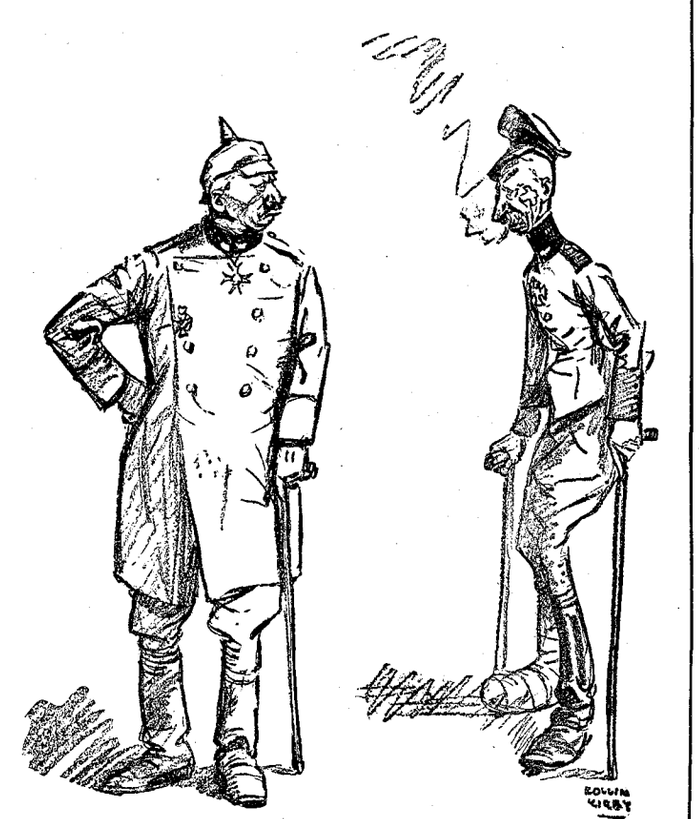
CARTOONS OF THE WEEK



FORWARD!

A MESSAGE TO THE KAISER

THE END OF A PERFECT DAY



"WHO TOLD YOU THERE WERE NO AMERICANS IN FRANCE, PAPA?"

HOW ONE AMERICAN CARTOONIST SEES THE SECOND VICTORY AT THE MARNE

Four cartoons in the New York "World" by Rollin Kirby

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between newspaper and magazine publication—limitations which are universally recognized as just and right.

It is pleasant to be able to announce also that in this policy of economy in printing the Government is not sparing itself. The Public Printer has been directed, by a resolution of the Joint Committee on Printing of Congress, to regulate strictly the use of paper in Government work, to cut out things that are not essential, to use light-weight and low-grade paper when possible, and to refer questions as to whether Government publications are non-essential directly to the Joint Committee on Printing. Economies have already been instituted in the Government Printing Office which are saving hundreds of thousands of dollars and (perhaps even more important now) are saving thousands of tons of good paper. Almost from time immemorial the extravagance of our Government departments in printing and distributing documents has involved enormous waste. All newspaper men and an immense number of private citizens can testify to this if they remember how many waste-baskets of public documents they have filled.

The press of the country will accept the injunctions of the Government cheerfully, and will heartily co-operate in the plan to save paper, and thus to meet the acute shortage of materials.

WOMEN'S WAR WORK: THE GOVERNMENT VIEW

The accepted fact that in war time women may be employed in place of men and in occupations new to women workers carries with it the need of safeguarding women from injurious work and from unfair and unsanitary conditions. For the present it is not necessary that women should undertake heavy physical tasks; they can supply men's places in other directions. England found her women eager and anxious to serve even in munition factory work, but she found also that for efficiency and permanent industrial benefit she must carefully restrict this eagerness by rules as to the hours and the character of the physical effort.

Our Government has lately indicated its policy in this matter in a comprehensive way through a resolution passed by the National War Labor Policies Board, of which Mr. Felix Frankfurter is chairman. This recognizes that, because two million men are in arms and a quarter of a million are being added to this number each month, and because production of war materials and essentials must not only be maintained but increased, women may be utilized in large numbers. But to accomplish the end in view their working power must be conserved and the kind of work they do restricted.

Specifically, says the Board, in manufacturing they must not be allowed to do heavy lifting or endure excessive strain. Nowhere should women of any age be allowed to do work in mines, smelters, or quarries, in furnace work of glass factories, in certain foundry operations, in any place where poisons exist to which women are especially susceptible, or (and this is hardly thinkable) in barrooms, saloons, or poolrooms. Special rules prohibit girls under twenty-one from working as public messengers, in street car or other transportation service, as elevator operators, or as bell-boys. When older women are employed in these latter services, the questions of hours of labor, night work, and sanitary conditions must be strictly watched. Mothers of young children should be employed only as a last resort.

The Board points out forcefully that the older men constitute a largely unused labor reserve; that in the past there has been a wrong tendency to look at men as superannuated at an absurdly early age. An interesting example of what can be done in this direction is the case of the White Motor Company of Cleveland. Several years ago this Company found that the average age of its employees was only twenty-six. It undertook to reverse the idea of Dr. Osler and to lengthen the working age of the average man. The result was an increase in the average age of the workingman to about forty years, with satisfactory results as to output. Thus this Company was ready in war time to carry further what many employers must perforce begin.

The Board calls attention to State laws which safeguard women industrially. Many of the injunctions of the Board, such as those summarized above, simply carry out the rulings and legislation thus quoted. As what may be called a "horrible example" of what happens when the people through the lawmaking body do not thus safeguard women attention is called by such advocates of right legislation as Miss Josephine Goldmark to the recent presentation by the Grand Jury of Kings County, New York, of the wretched conditions attached to the employment of women as conductors and guards on surface and subway lines. This finding was summarized at some length in The Outlook three weeks ago.

PLATINUM

Last week in the same mail The Outlook received two interestingly contrasted letters concerning platinum. One was from a subscriber, who said: "We, my wife and I, have a small amount of platinum which we are willing to turn over to the Government if we knew just the course to take for the negotiations. Will you not enlighten us?" In reply we have to say that amounts less than four ounces may be delivered to the Jewelers' War Service Committee, 35 Maiden Lane, New York City, for the Government, and amounts over four ounces to the Assay Office, Pine Street (near the Sub-Treasury).

The second letter was from a very large and well-known manufacturing jewelry concern. It took issue with a recent Outlook paragraph entitled "Have You Any Platinum?" The letter, protesting that the article would harm the jewelry industry, evidently assumed that, had the editors of The Outlook thoroughly understood the situation, they would not have allowed the paragraph to appear.

We merely restate without comment the first argument in the letter, namely, that any one who can afford to buy a piece of platinum jewelry at the present time is justified in doing so because he will be supporting the Government, there being a war tax on all jewelry!

The letter states that platinum is not indispensable in electrical apparatus. On the contrary, while we are using substitute alloys of metals less rare than platinum as much as possible, platinum is indispensable for ignition points in the heavier kind of work.

The letter also states that platinum is not an absolute essential in the manufacture of munitions or motors. Untrue as to motors, it is true as to munitions if we want to go back to old-fashioned and expensive methods. But the Government is not doing that. Instead, it is spending millions of dollars on the nitric-acid plants, all of which indispensably require platinum.

As to the Government's needs, whatever may have been thought of them on February 23, when the commandeering order brought 23,000 ounces under Government control, is not what is being thought now. Our ideas of the necessity of ammunition and men have gone up by leaps and bounds. It is seen that we must blast our way through Germany by a vaster army than had been supposed necessary, and that this army must be supplied with ammunition. The "Manufacturers' Record" says:

> There are two ways of battering through Germany's entrenched army and carrying our flag across the Rhine. One is through a tremendous amount of explosives, sufficient to blow out everything ahead of our men. The other way is through using the bodies of millions of American soldiers against the tremendous fighting ability of the German army.
>
> Which will America choose?

Platinum is used, not only by jewelers, but also by dentists, chemists, and makers of electrical appliances. Jewelers' platinum has ordinarily had a great deal of labor spent upon it. But, even so, if the Government requires the dentists' and chemists' platinum, it certainly should require the jewelers'.

The War Industries Board has commandeered all unmanufactured platinum, the letter says. So it has in so far as the 1,400 largest out of approximately 36,000 refiners, jewelers, and manufacturing jewelers are concerned.

The letter indicates the Government's needs as 40,000 ounces. We learn, however, from the recent testimony of the official representatives of the War Industries Board before the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives on the subject of taxation of jewelry, that the Government's requirements to March, 1919, are 60,000 ounces. Of this amount the Government has on hand 25,000 ounces, and claims to have control of 15,000 more.

We need a platinum reserve. It should be in the vaults of

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the Treasury Department, under the control of the Government. It should not remain distributed among the jewelers; it should not even remain distributed among the dentists and chemists if the Government needs it.

HABEAS CORPUS AND CONSCRIPTION

Canada's Union Government was extricated the other day, by a decision of the Supreme Court, from a position of peculiar difficulty. Had the decision gone the other way, the Dominion's war efforts might have been thrown into almost hopeless confusion, and a special session of Parliament would have been necessary to repair the damage.

The trouble was of a kind to recall to Americans some of Lincoln's difficulties during the Civil War. Just as Lincoln suspended writs of habeas corpus by executive power in order that the larger liberties of the American Nation might be maintained and the Government should not be hampered in its efforts to preserve the Nation's very existence, so for a period of two or three weeks the Federal Government of Canada was acting in defiance of writs of habeas corpus issued by the provincial courts of Alberta, Ontario, and Quebec.

A few weeks ago the Canadian Government was in difficulties with the working of its Conscription Law. There was the most urgent need of more men for the army, and the Military Service Act was not securing them because of the wholesale exemptions granted by local exemption tribunals, especially in the Province of Quebec. An Order in Council was passed canceling all exemptions hitherto granted to youths between the ages of twenty and twenty-two. Parliament was in session at the time, but, to avoid the delays of long debate, the new regulation was enacted by Order in Council, and was not submitted in the regular way as a bill to amend the Military Service Act. It was put into effect immediately, and later the Government's action was indorsed by a resolution of the House of Commons. There was some criticism at the time to the effect that the Government's method of procedure was arbitrary, but no one openly questioned its legal authority, for in August, 1914, comprehensive and extremely arbitrary powers had been given to the executive for the duration of the war by the War Measures Act.

Under the new regulations probably 40,000 men were added to the army. Then the point was raised in Alberta that the Government had no power to amend a statute by Order in Council. The Provincial Supreme Court of Alberta granted a writ of habeas corpus on behalf of a young man whose exemption had been canceled. The same point was raised in Ontario and Quebec.

Acting under instructions from Ottawa, the military authorities in Alberta defied the writ of habeas corpus and refused to deliver the man. For a few hours there was danger of bloodshed in a contest for supremacy between the courts and the military authorities; but cooler counsels prevailed. An appeal was taken to the Supreme Court of Canada, which decided that the Government had not exceeded its power when it canceled exemptions by Order in Council. That decision saved Canada from delays and confusion that might have been costly, and made unnecessary the summoning of a special session of Parliament.

When President Lincoln suspended writs of habeas corpus by executive power, a Chief Justice warmly denounced him, saying that "the people . . . are no longer living under a government of laws; but every citizen holds life, liberty, and property at the will and pleasure of the army officer in whose military district he may happen to be found." Passion was excited then, as it has been excited recently in Canada. But then, as now, the really important thing was to get on with the war. Democracy must sacrifice for the moment some of those rights which it wisely guards with extremely jealous care in times of peace. It must do so or it cannot prevail in its struggle against highly organized German autocracy.

PRICES IN CHINA

The other day one of our mission boards heard as follows from one of its missionaries in China: "I have not laid by anything from my salary; it has all gone towards actual living expenses." Another missionary wrote: "Save for the fact that I have received help from home I would be deeply in debt." Nearly all the missionaries in China say that it is impossible to live on the present salaries even with the utmost economy. They show how they are trying to meet the situation. For example:

Cutting down food by substituting rice and Chinese corn-meal for American cereals.
Giving up desserts altogether or having them only once a week.
Buying no fruit, though this is an important food element in a semi-tropical climate.
Using second-grade flour.
Giving up butter, jam, and afternoon tea.
Going without magazines and books.
Going without dental work and medicines.
Remaining at the stations during the summer, with a consequent loss of vitality for the work of the next year.
Giving up or borrowing on life insurance.
Patching old clothes and shoes, and wondering what is to be done when they can no longer be patched.
Accepting the burden of irritating debts.
Asking help from families at home.
Reducing the amount of Chinese help in the household, which means that the women are now doing housework instead of giving their time to missionary work, as practically all of them have done in the past.

Missionaries, American business men, and foreign officials living in China have found that, although they receive good salaries, what they have received is now worth only about half of the face value of their salaries in American money. The State Department has obtained from Congress a special appropriation to cover the loss sustained by our diplomatic and consular officials in China. Business houses have taken like action, and for some time practically all the missionary societies have guaranteed to their missionaries in China at least two silver dollars for every gold dollar of salary.

The rise in the price of commodities has been partly due to the difficulty in getting goods from abroad—coal, oil, cottons, clothing, breakfast foods, etc.—owing to the scarcity of shipping. In general, the rise in the price of commodities in this country has been exceeded in China. In certain commodities the rise even reaches two hundred per cent.

SHAD AND RIVER POLLUTION

Shad live in the sea, but ascend rivers in the spring to spawn. They reappeared last spring in the Hudson River. This welcome reappearance may indicate some slight improvement in the condition of the river; at all events, it attracted attention to the loss for a long time from that river of this important food-fish industry. It also emphasized the need for action to relieve the Hudson River from all pollution.

The late John Bigelow, who in the summer-time lived on the banks of the Hudson, asserted that the money value of the shad taken from the Hudson River between New York and Albany exceeded the revenue of the farming communities on either side of the river for the same distance. Then the river was comparatively pure. But now, what is the shad's fate? Coming up the Atlantic coast and rounding Sandy Hook to ascend the Hudson River, the shad must face and nose their way through the Narrows against the sewage of the 10,000,000 population of the metropolitan district and the waste from oil factories and manufacturing plants. After running this gauntlet the shad encounter the sewage products and surface contamination of an area containing over 1,000,000 population.

The pollution of the Hudson River and its tributaries by industrial waste throughout this region comes from thirty-five pulp and paper mills, ten knitting mills, eight woolen mills, seven wall-paper mills, three cotton mills, and numerous other factories. The total solid material in these polluted waters from industrial wastes has been estimated at 1,500,000 pounds daily. Besides this the sewage of the inhabitants of 175 municipalities enters these rivers. Of course the combined contamination makes the water and ice unfit for drinking purposes and kills the fish.

But this is not all. Transportation suffers. The presence of acid and acids salts in the water damages the hulls and boilers of steamboats and the submerged metal parts of the Government locks and dams. Formerly the boilers of vessels using these waters lasted twenty years, now they last only half as long. As

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to Government locks and dams, the valves, gates, plates, operating chains, and all metal parts below water are corroded and eaten away by the action of the acid.

The Merchants' Association of New York City, to whom we are indebted for the above facts, has appealed to the State Conservation Commissioner, asking him to use his authority, under the State law, to put a stop to the pollution of the Hudson River.

A clause in the pending Rivers and Harbors Bill, now in Congressional conference at Washington, would forbid under heavy penalty, we are glad to say, the discharge of acid or acid waste, directly or indirectly, into any navigable water of the United States, or into any tributary of any navigable water above tide-water.

THREE SHIPS

SEA POWER'S ANSWER TO GERMANY

ONE day last winter when the temperature hovered about zero, and had been hovering there for day after day until the cold had worked its way into men's bones, a group of men at work in erecting the shipyard at Hog Island built on the frozen ground a little fire at which they could warm their numbed hands. The foreman, catching sight of them, ran up and scattered the burning sticks about, stamping out the last spark, and told these men that they were fighting an enemy, and that this was no time to leave the fighting line. Afterwards it was learned that when the foreman did this his own feet were frozen.

Only a great passion can drive a man to act like this. What that foreman felt America feels to-day. It is patriotism and something more. It is the sense of danger to the free countries of the world that arises when the right of men to use the sea is challenged. Nothing can stop America's determination to put an end to the Thing that the submarine serves. Whether in the trenches of France or in the shipyards of America, neither frozen feet nor frozen hands, neither hardship nor suffering nor death, can enfeeble the will or restrain the passion of the men that have undertaken to beat Germany.

A part of the story of America's answer to Germany's threat against the peaceful sea power of the world is told by Mr. Beard elsewhere in this issue in his article on "The Submarine and the Bridge of Ships." Another part of that story is illustrated in this issue by Dr. Stidger's "Ship Silhouettes." Still another part is suggested in Lieutenant Freeman's account of "What the British Bluejacket Thinks of the American." It is sea power that is going to beat Germany, for it is sea power that has been giving the Allies food and munitions, it is sea power that is sending our soldiers to France, and it is sea power that is keeping open and relatively secure for the sustenance of free nations and for their soldiers and arms the world's ocean highways.

That sea power is embodied in three ships—the freighter, the transport, and the man-of-war.

The freighter represents sea power for the purposes of commerce.

The transport, which is but the liner assigned to a specific duty, represents sea power for the purposes of human civilizing intercourse.

The man-of-war represents sea power for the protection of commerce and civilization.

For many years the steward of this sea power has been Great Britain. She has been true to her trust. It is because she has proved her skill and ability in exercising the functions of her stewardship that her responsibility has been enlarged. She has not abused her trust. Her ports were open to all the world. She carried the goods of all nations, and carried them where they were needed; and she allowed the ships of all the world—German ships, Austrian ships, as well as other ships—access to her home harbors and to the harbors of her colonies. Under her guardianship the seas were free. She had a great navy; but she did not use her navy to conquer other nations. Indeed, a navy alone is incapable of being an invading and conquering force. The nation that wants to conquer other people must have an army. There has been talk in the past years, foolish talk, about "navalism," as if it were something like an ocean-going militarism. Nothing could be more absurd. A navy is essentially a protecting force. Sea power is essentially a beneficent power. It is a power that directs and guides and protects the interchange of people and of goods among the nations. Until this war came upon us we in America undervalued sea power and its service to us and to the rest of the world. We were content to let England render this service and accept the responsibility, and it took us months to realize that Germany's purpose was to wreck sea power, and in the process wreck all the world that she could not conquer with her army. We were aghast at her ruthlessness in drowning women and children when she sank the Lusitania; but we only slowly began to see that her ruthlessness lay in her purpose to sink the merchant shipping of the world.

Now America has begun to see what the Germans are after, and has begun to understand that she herself must take her part with Great Britain and other sea-faring nations in not merely protecting sea power, but in maintaining it. We are proud of our Navy, and with justice; but our Navy is not enough. It is useless to build a navy to protect sea power if there is no sea power to protect. That is why our shipyards are busy in manufacturing freighters and transports. As long as Germany carries on her process of stealthy assassination of ships, every freight-carrying and passenger-carrying ship that we build is a war-ship.

This is a war on behalf of freedom and law; and it is inevitable that on the side of freedom and law should be the sea power of the world. It is a fight for the freedom of the sea, as it is a fight for the freedom of France and Belgium, of England and Italy and America; and there is no surer sign that the war will end in victory than the fact that on the side of freedom is enlisted the world's sea power.

"OUR GOD IS MARCHING ON"

During my lifetime a revolution has occurred in all the civilized nations of the earth except Germany and Austria, the meaning of which cannot be obscure to any one who will even casually trace the progress of the race during the past seventy-five years.

I was born in 1835, a little over eighty years ago. The revolution which has been wrought in the world during those eighty years is but little recognized by the present generation.

At that time one-half of the United States was slave territory, and the slave power controlled the Government of the United States, most of the churches and the religious institutions in the United States, and, to a large extent, the most influential press in the United States. "Cotton is king" was the current motto of the times. When a little before the Civil War the statement was made by William H. Seward that there is a "higher law" than the United States Constitution, it was received with indignation.

England was still governed by its aristocracy. Government is described by Aristotle as of three classes: government by one, government by a few, and government by the many. England in the first half of the nineteenth century was governed by the few. There was a House of Commons, but it did not represent the common people. "About one-half of the House of Commons," wrote William Paley in his "Moral Philosophy," "obtained their seats in that assembly by the vote of the people, the other half by purchase or by nomination of single proprietors of great estates." Such as it was, the powers of this House of Commons were limited, since the House of Lords possessed an absolute veto power over all legislation. Labor servitude in the mines and factories of Great Britain was little better than in the slave States in this country, and in some respects it was worse. Women and little children in the coal mines dragged loaded trucks along low passages, inch-deep in water, going on all fours like horses, with the chains fastened around their half-naked bodies, and all of them, women and children as well as men, worked from ten to sixteen hours a day. Over a quarter of the population of London, the greatest city of Christendom, lived in poverty, and one-thirty-fourth of the entire population of England and Wales was dependent upon public or private charity.

France was under the imperialistic control of Napoleon III,

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an astute and unscrupulous politician who maintained his position partly by his uncle's name, partly by flattery, and partly by military power and corruption. There was only the semblance of popular representation. The final Republican Constitution was not framed until 1875, after the Franco-Prussian War.

Italy did not exist. In that peninsula, once the home of a powerful empire, were provincial kingdoms, jealous of and hostile to each other. The States of the Church were under the control of a hierarchy which forbade liberty of speech, and even of thought. Venice, once one of the great marts of the world, was in decay, strangled by the despotism of Austria. The spirit of that despotism is sufficiently indicated by one question and answer contained in a political catechism published by the Austrian Government in 1834:

> Question: How ought subjects to behave toward their rulers?
> Answer: Subjects should behave like faithful slaves to their masters.

What the government of southern Italy was under Bourbon rule is graphically described by Mr. Gladstone in his letter to the Earl of Aberdeen written in 1851. A paragraph from this letter is worth transcribing here because it illustrates to what condition people may come under irresponsible autocracy.

> It is not mere imperfection, not corruption in low quarters, not occasional severity, that I am about to describe; it is incessant, systematic, deliberate violation of the law by the power appointed to watch over and maintain it. It is such violation of human and written law as this, carried on for the purpose of violating every other law, unwritten and eternal, human and divine; it is the wholesale persecution of virtue when united with intelligence, operating upon such a scale that entire classes may with truth be said to be its object, so that the Government is in bitter and cruel, as well as utterly illegal, hostility to whatever in the nation really lives and moves and forms the mainspring of practical progress and improvement; it is the awful profanation of public religion, by its notorious alliance in the governing powers, with the violation of every moral law under the stimulants of fear and vengeance; it is the perfect prostitution of the judicial office, which has made it, under veils only too threadbare and transparent, the degraded recipient of the vilest and clumsiest forgeries, got up willfully and deliberately, by the immediate advisers of the Crown, for the purpose of destroying the peace, the freedom, aye, and even if not by capital sentences the life, of men among the most virtuous, upright, intelligent, distinguished, and refined of the whole community; it is the savage and cowardly system of moral, as well as in a lower degree of physical, torture, through which the sentences extracted from debased courts of justice are carried into effect.

Russia was an absolute despotism in which the people had no Parliamentary representation and no opportunity even to represent their interests by petition or otherwise, since neither the right of free press, free assembly, nor free speech was recognized by the law of the land. The Government of Russia under the Czars has been well described as "despotism tempered by assassination."

During my lifetime—that is, during the last eighty-three years—slavery has been abolished in the United States, and its abolition has been recognized by the Southern people, who have joined heartily and with increasing unanimity in the rebuilding of America upon the foundation of equal rights and equal opportunities. The public school system has been extended into every State and every Territory, and it has been so developed as to offer equal benefits for both sexes and all classes and all vocations in life. Industrial education was hardly known in my boyhood; now every State in the Union has industrial education as a part of its school system. The high schools have been opened to women; colleges of high standard have been established for their benefit; and they have been welcomed to a free participation in all industries and all vocations. The public lands have been thrown open to settlers by our Homestead Law, and absentee landlordism has been effectually prevented. Our forests, our mines, and our water powers have been allowed to pass under the control of private owners; but effectual steps have already been taken to secure such Governmental control of these National possessions as will conserve them for the Nation's use. The right of workers to organize for the protection of their rights and the promotion of their interests has been recognized by statute law in England and by judicial decisions in the United States. Child labor has been forbidden by many of our States, and the labor of women has been brought under the regulation and protection of the law. The suffrage has been so extended that in all the States of the Union manhood suffrage is the rule; in a number of the States the suffrage has been extended to women; and in the exceptional States the qualifications for suffrage are such as can easily be gained by a reasonable degree of intelligence, industry, and thrift.

In South America, Brazil has become a republic; and virtually all the Southern republics have acquired stable governments and are so advanced in national intelligence, virtue, and power that the Monroe Doctrine, provided for their protection, has become, in the thought of their statesmen and ours, the doctrine of both North and South America, to be maintained, and, if necessary, enforced, for our mutual well-being.

In Great Britain similar progress has been made in political, industrial, and educational democracy. The pocket boroughs have been abolished, and the House of Commons by an extension of the suffrage has become a true representative of the common people. The veto power has been taken from the House of Lords. The government of Ireland and of the colonies has been reformed; so that little, if any, of the old class injustice remains. A system of taxation has been introduced which will in time inevitably break up the great landed estates, and so destroy the power formerly possessed by the feudal lords. The schools, colleges, and universities have been opened to men and women of all classes and all creeds. A free school system has been provided, so that the people can choose between a school conducted by the State and one conducted by the Church.

France has been transformed from an autocracy to a free constitutional Republic, with an elected President and a Government responsible through its Ministry and its Legislature to the people. To this Republic neither the Bourbon, the Orleans, nor the Napoleonic monarchy is any longer a menace. The control of education has been taken out of the hands of the hierarchy and put into the hands of the people. If there is in France, as in Great Britain and America, need for further industrial reforms, the people possess the power to make them. If in this matter in France, as in Great Britain and America, the progress seems to impatient souls too slow, the delays are due to the caution of a people who wisely enter with hesitation upon experiments affecting the material foundations of their life. In no country are the ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity better interpreted by the national action than in France, which in my boyhood was in its political, educational, and social institutions scarcely less despotic than is Germany to-day.

Italy has become a great nation and a free nation. The story of its emancipation under the triple leadership of Cavour, Garibaldi, and Mazzini is one of the most romantic and inspiring chapters in the history of the human race. What the free spirit of democracy has done for France and Italy the recent success on their battle-fronts demonstrates. They have proved themselves a great people, a race possessing political intelligence, courage, and indomitable patience.

In Russia a revolution has overthrown the old bureaucracy. That in the reaction a people who had been denied all preparatory training for freedom should make the plunge from despotism to anarchy is not strange. But he who reads the history of the French Revolution and its results, or who even recollects the history of our own American Revolution and the effort it cost our best men to bring an ordered and strong nation out of the chaos which followed that Revolution, will entertain no despair for the Russian people.

Popular government is modern—how modern is indicated by the fact that the Massachusetts State-House and the Capitol at Washington are the oldest buildings in the world dedicated to the use of a popular representative assembly. The English Parliament is older than any American representative body, but the Parliament House is of modern construction. He who believes that history is anything more than merely a series of accidental happenings, who believes that there is any continuity and coherence in history, who believes in any ordered social evolution, should find it difficult to believe that this march of the centuries toward liberty will be halted, and that at the command of the Hun the civilized world will right-about-face and travel back to the unendurable despotisms from which at such a cost they

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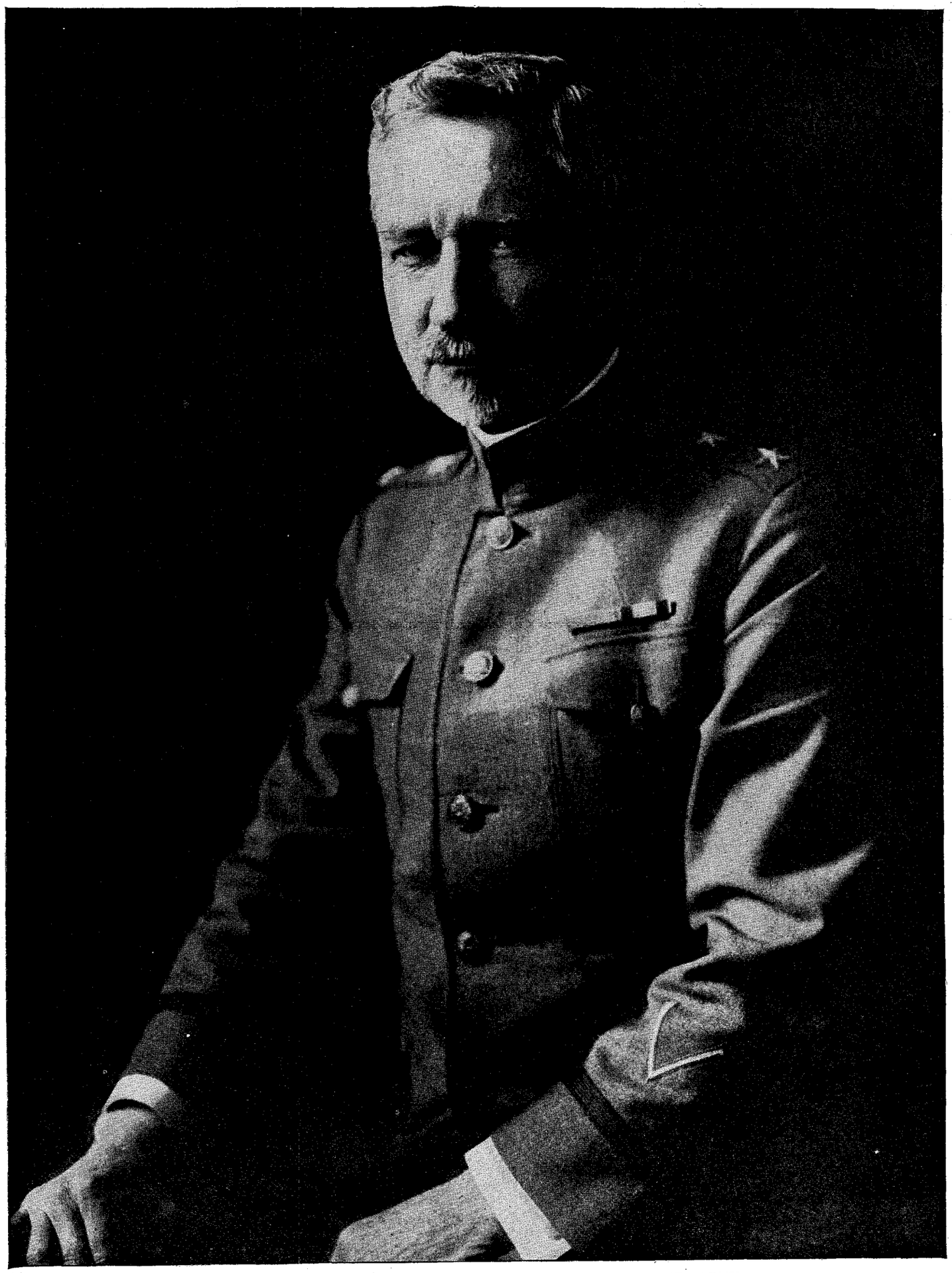

(C) CLINEDINST

GENERAL PEYTON C. MARCH, CHIEF OF STAFF, UNITED STATES ARMY

(On his left sleeve he wears the chevron that indicates six months' service in France)

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have wrought their deliverance. He who believes that God is in his world, that above all earthly plans and purposes is One who gives to his children their ideals and inspires them with their courage, and that history is in very truth the working out of his plan for his children, will find despair for the world impossible. He who looks back only four years may find in those four years food for his doubts and discouragements, but he who looks back a hundred years must have a great genius for pessimism if he can doubt in what direction the unseen forces are carrying the human race. LYMAN ABBOTT.

PEYTON MARCH—A STUDY IN DEVELOPMENT

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE

NOBODY seemed greatly shocked when the cable brought the word that King George had conferred the Knight's Grand Cross of the Order of St. Michael and St. George on the American Chief of Staff. He has received from America the title "General," but in Easton, up in the hills of Pennsylvania, where he was born, he has been, and always will be, just "Bob" March.

The biggest thing in Easton has always been Lafayette College. It stands, like the baron's castle used to stand, high on the hilltop, guarding the town. At least it has guarded that town from being commonplace, as many small towns are. When I was in Princeton, I somehow gained the impression that Lafayette had only one professor. If there were others, they were never mentioned. But every Lafayette man I knew talked about "Dad" March. There was that peculiar reverence for him that Williams men of an older generation had for Mark Hopkins—a reverence so rare in the average college boy that it always betokens unusual powers on the part of him who is revered. That "Dad" March had such powers and that they were recognized by others than his pupils is evidenced by the fact that he held degrees from more than a dozen of the leading universities of the world, including Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Yale, Harvard, Princeton, and Columbia. "Bob" March will have to gather in many decorations before he will surpass his father, the great philologist, litterateur, and linguist, Professor Francis Alden March.

We are finding it more and more interesting in America to trace a man's origins in estimating his life. General March had as good grandfathers as any man could hope for. They were of sturdy Scotch Presbyterian stock, and on his mother's side they had in their veins the blood of Washington. His mother was Mildred Stone Conway, and his great-grandfather through her was Peter Daniel, whose mother was Washington's half-sister. A man with blood like that in him has a good start. But a good start is not all in a race. He had besides this the careful training of the busy man who was his father, yet who was not so busy that he could not be a companion to his sons. He taught them the great things that books held, and the greater messages that God has written in the wondrous parchment of his world. Eastonians will tell you of the Saturdays and holidays when Professor March would come down from the old house on the hill, with his six sons trooping behind him, off for a tramp down the river. The culture of a great companion, of great books, of the wide out-of-doors where God dwelt and where he talked to men—these all entered into the shaping of Peyton March. We have been obsessed, to our great harm, by many German things these latter years, but by none more harmful than the German ideas of education which were getting so firmly rooted among us. By them our boys were being taught to be "useful." The glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome were to be cast away because they did not make "useful" men. To the German idea the world was a vast kitchen garden, where roses cumbered the ground and cabbages were kings. Thank God, the idea is not so deeply rooted that it cannot be cast out! But it is men like Peyton March, steeped in the splendor of the past; men like Woodrow Wilson, like Lloyd George, trained in the same fashion in homes where plain living and high thinking were the rule, to whom the world is turning for guidance to-day.

Then came the long apprenticeship in his profession. Occasionally a politician does a wise thing. The politician who represented the Easton district in Congress had appointed one after another of the sons of his satellites to a vacant West Point cadetship. They all failed, just as they ought to have done. So, growing weary of this poor stuff, he determined to offer it to one of Professor March's sons, because "they seemed able to do almost anything." Professor March's son did not fail, then or afterward. This is what he has done in preparation for the big task he is now carrying on: He spent ten years in the Army before the Spanish-American War; then he was captain of the Astor Battery in the Philippines, during which he almost captured Aguinaldo. He did capture Mrs. Aguinaldo. Richard Harding Davis has told that story, how Captain March and his men, days away from soap and civilization, were searching the baggage they had captured with the rebel chieftain's wife, and found a case of fine soap. But Captain March did not happen to be a German, and so he did not believe that a lady's possessions were the spoil of her captors, badly as they needed this part of them. Papers he would keep, and anything that might be of value to enemies in arms, but not her soap. So they went unwashed. Then came the Russo-Japanese War, and he went as an observer, not to spy, but to learn. A learner always, a strict disciplinarian, so brave that he never feared to go before when the command was to charge—these are the things which he built on the foundation his father laid.

Everybody knows that when the United States entered this war March was merely a colonel of artillery. But they also know some things in Washington. So he went abroad with Pershing as Chief of Artillery, and laid the lines on which the American artillery has become that thing of terror the Huns are finding it. Then back to become the real head of the Army, the Chief of Staff. No one knows what he will be before the war is over nor what honors he will bear. One thing is sure. He will do the task he is set to do. He has the blood, he has the start his father gave him, he has the long apprenticeship to toil. Fate merely found him ready. WILLIAM E. BROOKS.

SHIP SILHOUETTES

BY W. L. STIDGER

These are not imaginative sketches, though they could not have been written without imagination. Dr. Stidger, who has been serving the Y in France, draws these silhouettes from the memory of what he has himself seen.—THE EDITORS.

TRANSPORTS AND DESTROYERS

IT was nearing day, and the flaming heralds gave promise of a brilliant dawn coming up out of France, to the east. Three of us stood in the crow's-nest on an American transport, where we had been standing our watch since four o'clock that morning.

Suddenly as we peered through our glasses off to the west we saw the masts of a great cruiser creeping above the horizon of the sea. We reported it to the bridge, where it was confirmed. Then in a few minutes we saw another mast, and then another, and another; four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, twenty, five, six—twenty-six ships coming up over the western horizon bound for France, bearing the most precious burden that ever

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a caravan of the sea carried across the waters of the deep—American boys, your boys.

It was a marvelous sight. We had been so intently watching this that we had forgotten about the dawn. Then we turned for a minute, and off to the east a brilliant red dawn was splashing its way out of the sea.

"What are those dots on the sun?" my friend shouted to me.

"Why, I believe it's the convoy of destroyers coming out to meet those transports," I replied.

Then before our eyes, up out of the eastern horizon, just as we had watched the transports and the cruiser come up over the western horizon, those slender guardians of the deep came toward us in formation. There were ten of them, and they met the great American convoy just abreast our transport. We saw the American flag fly to the wind on each ship and the flashing of signal-lights even in the dawning.

"Those destroyers coming out of the east against that sunrise remind me of the experiences one has in France in these vivid war days," I said to my fellow-watcher in the crow's-nest.

"How is that?"

"They stand out like the silhouettes of mountain peaks against a crimson sunrise," I replied.

THE MIDNIGHT WATCH

The great transport was cutting its sturdy way through three dangers—the submarine zone, a terrific storm beating from the west against its prow, and through a night as dark as Erebus because of the storm, with no lights showing.

I had the midnight to four o'clock in the morning watch, and on this night I was on the aft fire control. Below me on the aft gun-deck, as the rain pounded, the wind howled, and the ship lurched to and fro, I could see the bulky forms of the boy gunners. There were two to each gun, two standing by, and six sleeping on the deck, ready for any emergency. The greatcoats made them look like gaunt men of the sea as they huddled against their guns, watching, waiting. I wondered what they could see in that impenetrable darkness if a U-boat could even survive in that storm; but Uncle Sam never sleeps in these days, and this transport was especially worth watching, for it carried a precious cargo of wounded officers and men back to the homeland, west-bound.

For an hour I had heard no sound from the boys on the gun-deck below me. When I was on watch in the daylight, I knew them to be just a great crowd of fine, buoyant, happy American lads, full of pranks and laughter; but they were strangely silent to-night as the ship plowed through the storm. The storm seemed to have made men of them. They were just boys, but American boys in these days become men overnight and acquit themselves like men.

I watched their silent forms below me with a great feeling of wonderment and pride. The ship lurched as it swung to its zigzag course. Then suddenly I heard a sweet sound coming from one of the boys below me. I think that it was big, raw-boned "Montana" who started it. It was low at first, and, with the storm and the vibrations of the ship, I could not catch the words. The music was strangely familiar to me. Then the boy on the port gun beside "Montana" took the old hymn up, and then the two reserve gunners who were standing by, and then the gunners on the starboard side, and I caught the old words of—

> "Jesus, Saviour, pilot me
> Over life's tempestuous sea;
> Unknown waves before me roll,
> Hiding rock and treacherous shoal."

Above the creaking and the vibrations of the great ship, above the beating of the storm, the gunners on the deck below all unconsciously in that storm-tossed night were singing the old hymn of their memories, and I think that I never heard that wonderful hymn when it sounded sweeter to me than it did then.

We hear a good deal of how our boys sing "Hail! Hail! the Gang's All Here" and "Where Do We Go from Here, Boys?" as a ship is sinking. I know American soldiers pretty well. I do not know about what they sang when the Tuscania went down, but I am glad to add this picture to the other and to say that I, for one, heard a crowd of American gunners singing "Jesus, Saviour, pilot me over life's tempestuous sea." The mothers and fathers of America must know that the average American boy will have the lighter songs at the end of his lips, but buried down deep in his heart there is a feeling of reverence for the old hymns, and whether he sings them aloud or not they are there singing in his heart, and sometimes, under circumstances such as I have described, he sings them aloud in the darkness and the storm.

And so have many silhouettes of the sea stood out.

SPOTS ON THE SUN

We stood on the deck of a ship bound for France. The voyage had been full of dangers. Submarines had harassed us for days. One night such a lurch came to the ship as threw us all about in our staterooms. We thought it was a storm until the morning came and we were informed that it was a sudden lurch to avoid a submarine. The voyage had been full of uneasiness, and now we were coming to the most dangerous part of it—the submarine zone.

Everybody was on deck. It was Sunday afternoon. Suddenly off to the east several spots appeared on the horizon. What were they—friendly craft or enemy ships?

Nobody knew, not even the captain. There was a wave of uneasiness over the boat.

Speculation was rife.

Then we saw the signal boy go aft, and in a moment the tricolor of France was fluttering in the wind, and we knew that the approaching craft was friendly. Then through powerful glasses we could make them out to be long, low-lying, swift destroyers come out to meet us. They were a welcome sight. Like "hounds of the sea" they came, long and lean. Headed straight for us, they came like the wind. Then suddenly a slight mist began to fall, but not enough to obscure the sun. Through this mist the sun burned its way, and, almost as if a miracle had been performed by some master artist, a beautiful rainbow arched the sky to the east, and under the arch of this rainbow fleetly sailed those approaching destroyers.

It was a silhouette of the sea never to be forgotten while memory lasts. The French flag fluttered, the band started to play the "Marseillaise," and a ship-load of happy people sang it.

THE ARRIVAL

Troops were expected in at a certain port of entry. The camp had been emptied of ten thousand men. That means but one thing—that new troops are expected. The great dirigibles sailed out a few hours ago. The seaplanes followed. Thousands of American men and women lined the docks waiting, peering with anxious eyes out toward the "point." Here at this point a great cape jutted out into the ocean, and around this cape we were accustomed to catch sight of the convoys first.

A sense of great expectancy was upon us. We had heard rumors of submarines off the shore for several days. Then suddenly we heard a terrific cannonading, and we knew that the transports and the convoys were in a battle with the U-boats which had lain in wait for them. An anxious hour passed. The sun was setting and the west was a great rose blanket.

Then a shout went up, for the first great transport swung around the cape. Then another, and a third, and a fourth, and finally a fifth; great gray bulks, two of them camouflaged until you could not tell whether they were little destroyers or a group of destroyers or one big ship. Then they got near enough to enable us to see the American boys, thousands of them, lining the railings. Through the glasses we could make out the names of the transports. They were some of the largest that sail the Atlantic. They came slowly in on the full tide, with that rose sunset back of them, the bands on their decks playing across the waters, and five thousand boys on the first boat singing "Keep the Home Fires Burning," then the "Marsellaise," and finally "The Star-Spangled Banner," in which the crowd on the shore joined.

There were the great ships, and beyond them the cape, and beyond that the hovering dirigibles, and beyond them the great bird seaplanes, and beyond them the background of a rose-colored sky, and beyond that the memories of home.

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THE GOVERNMENT AS RAILWAY MANAGER

THE SIZE OF ITS PROBLEM AND HOW IT IS SOLVING IT

BY THEODORE H. PRICE

THE war in which we are engaged has often been called the "Great Adventure," and the phrase is applicable to its economic as well as its military aspects. One phase of the adventure is the experiment that is being made in the Governmental operation of the American railways.

On December 31, 1916, the total steam railway mileage in operation in the United States (all tracks) was 397,014. This mileage was owned or controlled by 2,905 companies, employing 1,700,814 persons. They had outstanding $10,875,206,565 of bonds and $8,755,403,517 of stock (par value). Their property also included various coastwise, lake, and inland systems of water transportation and certain canals leased or owned. Of the 2,905 railway companies, 185 operated major systems, each of which had an annual operating revenue of $1,000,000 or more; 221 were switching or terminal companies; 1,434 were "plant facility" lines; and 765 were what have come to be described as "short line" railways, dependent upon one or more of the larger systems for through connections.

If to the foregoing we add the Pullman Company, operating some 7,380 sleeping, tourist, and chair cars, the "fast freight" lines, and the express companies, which had become appendages of the railways, we get a fairly inclusive picture of the transportation facilities of the country which by proclamation of the President came under the control of Director-General McAdoo on January 1, 1918.

For the most part these various agencies had been developed by private initiative and capital. Some of the canals were State owned and were built a century ago. The Legislature of the State of New York passed the first resolutions looking toward the construction of the Erie Canal in 1810. The era of railway construction commenced about twenty years later with the building of a line between Baltimore and Frederick, Maryland, in 1831, and apparently reached its climacteric in 1887, when 12,876 miles of new railway were added to the Nation's mileage. Since that time new construction has been relatively small, the mileage in operation having been increased by only 831 miles in 1915, and 1,653 miles in 1916.

Originally the transportation companies were free to charge what they chose for the services rendered, to allow rebates, and to compete or combine as they pleased. Gradually, however, the right of regulation in the public interest was recognized. The Inter-State Commerce Commission was created by an Act of Congress in 1887, and, following the example thus set, most of the States proceeded to establish railway or public service commissions, which were vested with the control of intra-State traffic, rates, and railway property.

Hundreds, if not thousands, of laws and regulations affecting common carriers were adopted, and the path of the railway manager had an impenetrable hedge of State laws on one side and an equally dense thicket of Federal laws on the other.

Of course traditions grew up in connection with a business so vast, and some of them came to be preserved in the classification of freight, which means, it may be explained, the rules by which the rates charged upon different descriptions of merchandise in car-load and less than car-load lots are ascertained. This classification, which was originally based upon the idea of charging "all the traffic would bear" and demanding more for hauling a car-load of silk than a car-load of coal, came to be varied almost infinitely in its application. There were, in fact, three "official" classifications used by railways in different sections of the country. They varied in many important details. Then not a few of the States also undertook to establish classifications of their own for traffic carried within their boundaries, and the result was that any one having much freight to ship found a highly trained classification clerk an indispensable part of his organization.

In the department of passenger traffic the problem of rates was almost as intricate. The mileage charged differed in different States. A ticket to a competing point often cost less than was charged for transportation to a nearer destination, and ticket-sellers had to be trained men, thoroughly versed in routes, rates, and other technicalities.

When we entered the war in April, 1917, the railways of the country were already doing the largest business in their history; but they maintained, with apparent justice, that the rates which the Inter-State Commerce Commission permitted them to charge were inadequate and altogether insufficient to enable them to meet the higher costs of operation, and particularly the higher wages that they had to pay. They had applied for authority to advance these rates, but the relief obtained was only partial, and they had been compelled to postpone making the improvements and buying the equipment of which they were so urgently in need. It was evident that the demand for transportation which the war would impose would severely tax their facilities, and the railway presidents of most of the larger systems made a valiant effort to meet the situation by combining their facilities under a common management. It is to be said to their credit that they spared neither themselves nor their properties in the attempts that were made to supply the service required, but their authority was moral rather than legal. They could not ignore their obligations to their stockholders entirely, and by November, 1917, it had become evident that radical action was necessary if the transportation required in the conduct of the war was to be supplied and the necessary business of the country kept running at all.

It was in this situation that the President, on December 26, 1917, issued his proclamation putting the transportation agencies of the country under the control of William G. McAdoo as Director-General. The condition of the railways at the time this proclamation took effect, the freight embargoes and congestion which existed, and the irregularity and lateness of nearly all the passenger trains will not soon be forgotten. The winter was an exceptionally severe one, and the difficulties of keeping steam up, operating trains, and loading and unloading freight cars were naturally increased by the Arctic temperatures that prevailed; but the main cause of the trouble was the lack of centralized power and complete co-ordination.

Something more than six months have now elapsed since Mr. McAdoo took charge of the railways. Any one who has traveled much will admit that the passenger trains are on time, and, while priority has been given to the transportation of things that are essential to our soldiers and our civil population, the freight situation has been vastly improved.

Just before leaving for the West, in June, Mr. McAdoo issued what may be called a declaration of his policy in regard to the railways. It was a signed statement, reading as follows:

> The policy of the United States Railroad Administration has been informed and shaped by a desire to accomplish the following purposes, which are named in what I conceive to be the order of their importance:
>
> *First*, the winning of the war, which includes the prompt movement of the men and materials that the Government requires. To this everything else must be subordinated.
>
> *Second*, the service of the public, which is the purpose for which the railways were built and given the privileges accorded them. This implies the maintenance and improvement of the railway properties so that adequate transportation facilities will be provided at the lowest cost, the object of the Government being to furnish service rather than to make money.
>
> *Third*, the promotion of a spirit of sympathy and a better understanding as between the administration of the railways and their two million employees, as well as their one hundred million patrons, which latter class includes every individual in the Nation,

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since transportation has become a prime and universal necessity of civilized existence.

Fourth, the application of sound economies, including:

(*a*) The elimination of superfluous expenditures.

(*b*) The payment of a fair and living wage for services rendered and a just and prompt compensation for injuries received.

(*c*) The purchase of material and equipment at the lowest prices consistent with a reasonable but not an excessive profit to the producer.

(*d*) The adoption of standardized equipment and the introduction of approved devices that will save life and labor.

(*e*) The routing of freight and passenger traffic with due regard to the fact that a straight line is the shortest distance between two points.

(*f*) The intensive employment of all equipment and a careful record and scientific study of the results obtained, with a view to determining the comparative efficiency secured.

The development of this policy will, of course, require time. The task to which the Railroad Administration has addressed itself is an immense one. It is as yet too early to judge of the results obtained, but I believe that great progress has been made toward the goal of our ideals. All those who have had a share in this great work, including especially the members of my staff and the officers and employees of the railways, have shown intelligence, public spirit, loyalty, and enthusiasm in dealing with problems that have already been solved and attacking those that still await solution.

With their continued co-operation, I feel assured of a future in which the lessons of our accumulating experience will be effectively employed to humanize the science of railroading and negative the idea that corporations have no souls.

W. G. McAdoo.

Of the reforms that have been introduced and the methods that have been applied in an attempt to carry out this policy I shall tell in a later article.

There is, however, one phase of the present situation with which I prefer to deal immediately. It is the congestion and delay recently encountered by the traveling public in the purchase of tickets and the reservation of sleeping accommodations. The increase in passenger travel that has developed during the past six months is not perhaps generally appreciated.

To start with, some 5,355,558 troops were moved on orders from the War and Navy Departments between May 1, 1917, and June 30, 1918. Of this number 3,204,570, or nearly sixty per cent, were carried between January 1 and June 30, 1918. These figures do not include soldiers, sailors, and officers traveling at their own expense, or the army of mothers, fathers, wives, and sweethearts who have been visiting them at the various camps throughout the country. Added to this there has been an enormous increase in the number of workmen who have been attracted from one place to another by the advance in wages paid at the munition plants, the shipyards, and the other industrial centers where Government work is being done.

At a small town in West Virginia which before the war had a population of only three or four hundred people a munition plant has been established which employs some twelve thousand men. Very high wages are being paid. The work is considered hazardous, and the floating labor that is attracted from the larger cities remains, upon an average, only thirty days, the result being that the entire personnel of the plant is changed once a month and a passenger traffic of 288,000 people annually has to be handled at a station at which probably not more than five or ten passenger tickets a day were sold before the war.

Approximately the same conditions exist at many other points. Meantime the ranks of the ticket-sellers, who were chiefly young men, have been seriously depleted by conscription, and those still available for duty have been overworked. It has not been easy to get new men. Expert training is required in a ticket-seller. He must know routes, rates, and time-tables, be able to think quickly, make change accurately, and maintain an imperturbable good humor.

The United States Railroad Administration has for some time recognized the exigencies of the situation, and in an effort to meet them it has established schools for women ticket-sellers in many large cities. In these schools, girls who are willing to learn are being initiated into the technique of the work, and as soon as they are even partially qualified to deal with the public they will be put in the ticket offices of the country, where they will receive the same pay that men do for similar service. Until they are available more or less congestion and delay are to be expected at the larger ticket offices of the country; but vigorous efforts are being made to minimize the unavoidable friction, and those who have occasion to travel will promote their own convenience and that of the public by purchasing their tickets as far in advance as possible.

Another measure that has been decided upon with the same object in view is the sale of a universal mileage-book at the rate of three cents a mile now generally established. This mileage-book will be good in the hands of the bearer over any railway under control of the Government, and a passenger holding it will be able to board his train and ride to his destination without being delayed in the purchase of a ticket. If these mileage-books come into general use, the pressure on the ticket offices and the waste of time entailed in buying railway tickets will be very much reduced.

Many other reforms and improvements of which the public will not become immediately conscious are being worked out; but it is impossible for me to describe them in the space at my disposal in this issue of The Outlook, nor is it practicable to apply them with the promptitude that has been possible in the matter of ticket-selling and mileage-books.

Nearly every change in the methods hitherto followed must be made the subject of very careful and painstaking consideration. In most cases there are at least three parties—namely, the public, the Railroad Administration, and the railway employees—who are entitled to a hearing, and in many instances the public service or railway commissions of the various States must also be consulted.

Take the matter of freight classification, for instance. A consolidated classification list has been prepared. It is a book of several hundred pages. The rates and the weight or quantity of goods that shall be considered a car-load have been changed in many instances. These changes may affect the interest and competitive ability of many shippers, for there are not a few businesses in the United States that have been built up on the strength of the railway rates that they have enjoyed.

Before the new classification list can be made effective it is necessary that the shippers shall be given an opportunity to express themselves in regard to any changes that have been proposed. This requires time. Hearings upon the subject are now in progress throughout the country. The work is being accelerated in every possible way; but at best it will be a month or two before the new classification list can be finally adopted.

The threads which compose the fabric of our transportation system have become so interwoven with our daily life that a seemingly unimportant change in even a trivial detail may mean disaster for some business men or diminished prosperity for some communities who have been dependent upon what may be described as the "*status quo ante* Governmental administration of the railways."

Whether this *status quo ante* will be re-established by a return of the railways to the control of their owners after the war is one of the questions that are unanswerable. The statute passed by Congress provides for such a return twenty-one months after peace, and the United States Railroad Administration must govern itself accordingly. This is one of its difficulties, for it is hard to develop enthusiasm and efficiency in an organization that may be but temporary.

It is to be said, however, that Mr. McAdoo has succeeded in inspiring nearly all the railway employees, from the highest officers down, with a patriotic desire to serve the Government and the public as a war duty. They have been brought to realize that promptitude in the winning of the war in Europe is directly dependent upon the promptitude with which the transportation of war-making material is provided in the United States, and from section hand to Director-General every one is working unselfishly toward this end.

This will be followed by another article by Mr. Price on the Railroad Administration, to be published in an early issue of The Outlook

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THE SUBMARINE AND THE BRIDGE OF SHIPS

GERMANY'S SEA CHALLENGE AND ITS ANSWER

THE MURDER OF MERCHANT VESSELS—THE ATTACK ON BENEFICENT SEA POWER—THE NEED OF NEW SHIPS—WHERE COULD THEY BE FOUND?—THE NEW IDEA OF THE FABRICATED SHIP—THE STORY OF HOG ISLAND—THE LAUNCHING ON AUGUST 5

BY ALEXANDER H. BEARD[1]

> NOTICE
>
> Travelers intending to embark on the Atlantic voyage are reminded that a state of war exists between Germany and her allies and Great Britain and her allies; that the zone of war includes the waters adjacent to the British Isles; that, in accordance with formal notice given by the Imperial German Government, vessels flying the flag of Great Britain, or of any of her allies, are liable to destruction in those waters, and that travelers sailing in the war zone on ships of Great Britain or her allies do so at their own risk. IMPERIAL GERMAN EMBASSY.
>
> Washington, D. C., April 22, 1915.

THE above, inserted among the shipping advertisements in the New York "Times" on the morning of May 1, 1915, attracted the notice only of the curious. It was the day the Lusitania was to leave New York with a crowded passenger list. There was a little speculation; in a vague, indefinable way that notice was connected with that departure; but few passages were canceled, and, where any comment was made, men said that "they would not dare sink the Lusitania." Then came that hideous day, May 7, 1915, and that mighty British steamer went down "in twenty minutes," followed by the ghastly exultation of a nation galvanized into murder efficiency. But there seemed to be a further explanation of such evil rejoicing. The Lusitania stood for Britain's supremacy of the sea. More than that; it stood for all sea power (of which Britain was the guardian), which in all modern history has held in check the encroachment of land power, and was now alone thwarting Germany's plans. The world was stunned by the mere horror of what had been done; the watchers that realized, by the challenge. Those that understood knew that the word had gone forth, "No quarter" on the sea, as it had already gone forth from the same voice on land. The submarine had been assigned a new and monstrous mission, and the bid for world power on land, conceived in darkness, was henceforth to urge its claims from underneath the sea.

That day was the beginning. The Arabic, the Ancona, the Persia, followed in quick succession during the balance of the year 1915—to mention only those that were outstanding international incidents. There was, besides, the growing number of smaller vessels that were being sent to the bottom. Attention was centered on America's diplomatic negotiations. The argument was raised that these vessels carried war cargoes. But something else was observable. *Neutral steamers—Norwegian, Danish, Dutch, American—were being sunk, west-bound, in ballast!* The flag or cargo or destination did not seem to matter. As a certain observer commented on this, "The magnitude of the injustice paralyzes the judgment." Men began conjecturing darkly what this might mean. A few realized. The world's whole supply of ships was being whittled down! It was simply a matter of pencil and paper and a book of reference—Lloyd's Register of Shipping!

Nineteen hundred and sixteen was a dark year, full of vague surmise and uneasy reckonings. The toll of disaster at sea was not only mounting continuously, but ever faster. The submarines

[1] Author of the articles on "The Fabricated Ship" and "The Ship That Was Built in Twenty-seven Days," printed in The Outlook, respectively, for April 10, 1918, and July 24, 1918. Another article on the new ship-building, entitled "Building the Bridge to France," by Frederick Lewis Allen, was printed in The Outlook for February 20, 1918. Some of the facts stated in those three articles are here incorporated in this complete account of Hog Island and brought up to date.

Darling in the New York Tribune

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THE BRIDGE TO FRANCE

Knott in the Dallas News

ONE OF THE DECISIVE BATTLES OF THE WAR

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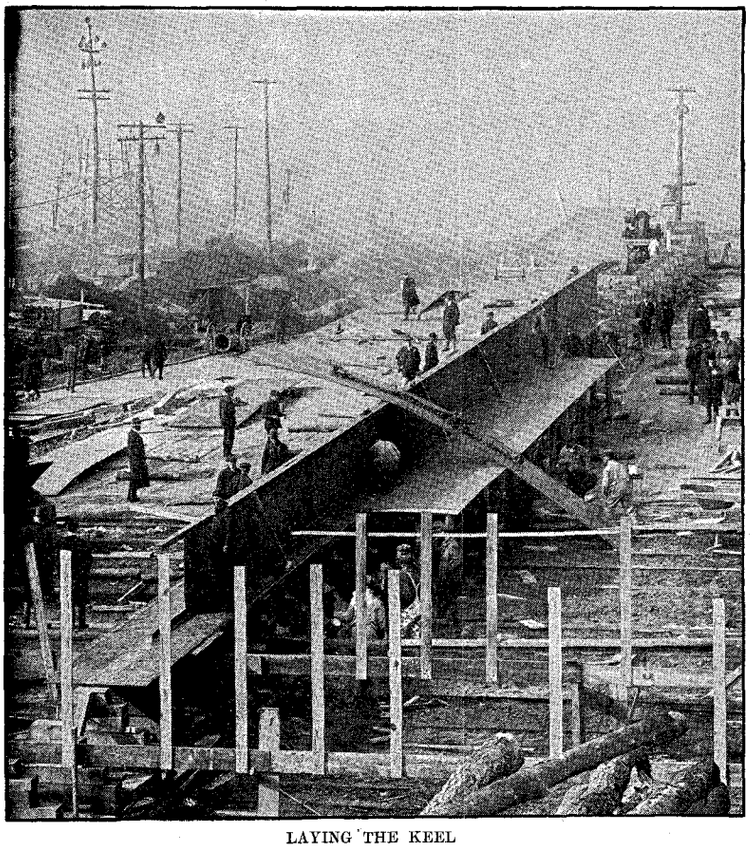
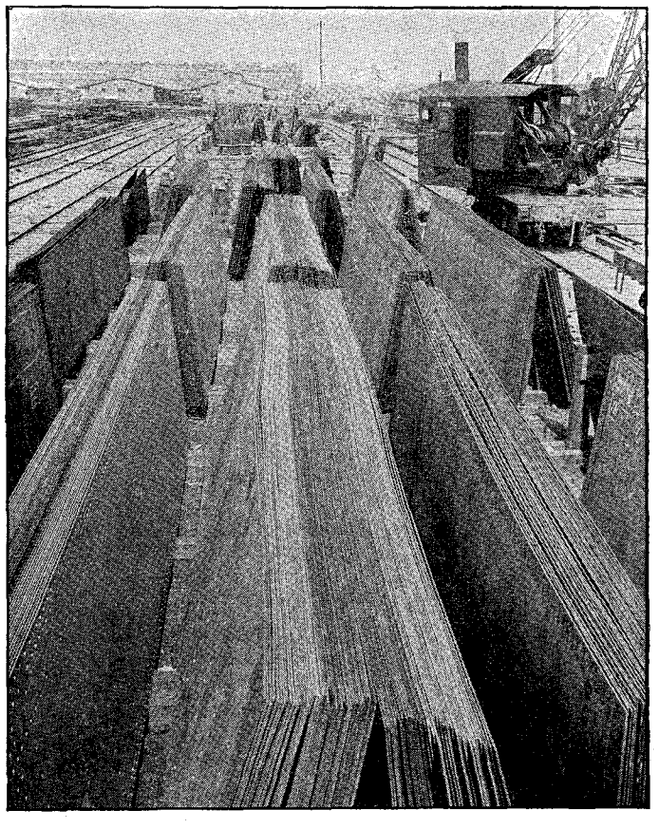


LAYING THE KEEL



SHIP PLATES IN THE STORAGE YARDS

ASSEMBLING THE

had sunk 1,700,000 tons (gross) of ships in 1915 alone, and now they were sending them down at a rate which would account for not only as many more in 1916, but a million tons besides! If Germany meant to go on with wholesale destruction of merchant ships—and who really doubted it?—the feeling began to grow in America that we must take some thought of building them. "Give us an American merchant marine," which had been for years only a voice crying in the wilderness, became now an ever more imperative demand. Some answer at last seemed to be forthcoming. In September, 1916, the President signed the Shipping Bill. This called for a United States Shipping Board, whose duty was to be, among other things, to create "a naval auxiliary . . . and a merchant marine, to meet the requirements of the United States."

In the meantime the American shipyards, that for years had languished, suddenly found themselves pressed with orders for ships, and many began to expand their capacities. To the extent that ship-building was then conceived of, we were taking thought of building! Mr. Stevenson Taylor, President of the Society of Naval Architects and Marine Engineers, addressing them at their annual meeting in November, 1916, reported that "at present the shipyards of the United States are building nearly 1,500,000 tons (gross) of steel, and over 50,000 tons of wood vessels, to be finished during the next two years." But he also reported that 5,000,000 tons of merchant vessels had been destroyed since the beginning of the war. With a normal world tonnage of about 50,000,000, 5,000,000 had been sunk, and another 5,000,000 were interned by the war—a total of about one-fifth no longer available for any service, war or peace. It was evident that ship shortage would be a serious problem for some time to come.

During this increasingly critical period American International Corporation, which was created to promote American interests in foreign fields, had not been inactive. Mr. George J. Baldwin, in charge of this field of the Corporation's work, realized early in 1916 that ship-building and the creation of a merchant marine was not only necessary for the development of America's foreign trade, but for the establishment of America's responsible position among the nations. Very well. American International Corporation would become a builder of ships. The best engineers and naval architects available were commissioned to examine and report upon all the important shipyards along the Atlantic coast. They reported that of all these yards the New York Ship-Building Company's, at Camden, New Jersey, on the Delaware, seemed to be the best organized and most efficient. Its reputation as a builder of many of our finest battleships, and of such American merchant steamers as the Mongolia and Manchuria, recently of the Pacific Mail, was one of sterling quality. It was decided to purchase; the deal was consummated; in November, 1916, the Company was reorganized as the New York Ship-Building Corporation, and two million dollars was immediately allocated for an important expansion in building capacity.

WHERE ARE THE SHIPS?

In 1917 events come crowding. On January 31, the fall of the sword of Damocles—unrestricted submarine warfare. On April 6, our inevitable entry into the war. Staggering figures for sinkings of merchant ships, reaching for the month of April over 800,000 tons gross register, or, in terms of cargo-carrying capacity, 1,300,000 tons. British ship-building, usually about sixty per cent of the world's, had fallen to about one-third its normal output. Ship-building for neutrals and all the Allies, including the new ally, the United States, was thus hardly more than one-fifth of this April rate of destruction. The writing was on the wall, unless this proportion could be somehow reversed. Our allies' position was precarious for supplies. People were saying that Britain could not hold out, she would starve; that, in any event, we could not send troops to France—there simply were not enough ships. Then came the realization that Britain would hold out; further, that we had to send troops; therefore we must build ships. We must build them because our allies needed them badly; also because to us they were the *sine qua non* of participation in a war in which we had announced our intention to join to the uttermost.

"To create a merchant marine to meet the requirements of the United States." That was the duty of the Shipping Board. How oddly such a phrase sounded in the face of such a crisis, and how little had they foreseen the ultimate interpretation of it! Here was a task to put a whole Nation at work and to call for the resources of the Nation's treasury. To organize, direct, and apportion that task they formed a great Government corporation and gave it the name that was in every one's mind—the United States Shipping Board Emergency Fleet Corporation. For the understanding of that emergency seemed to sweep like a wave over the country. The cry went forth from England: "Give us ships!" The American newspapers, then the

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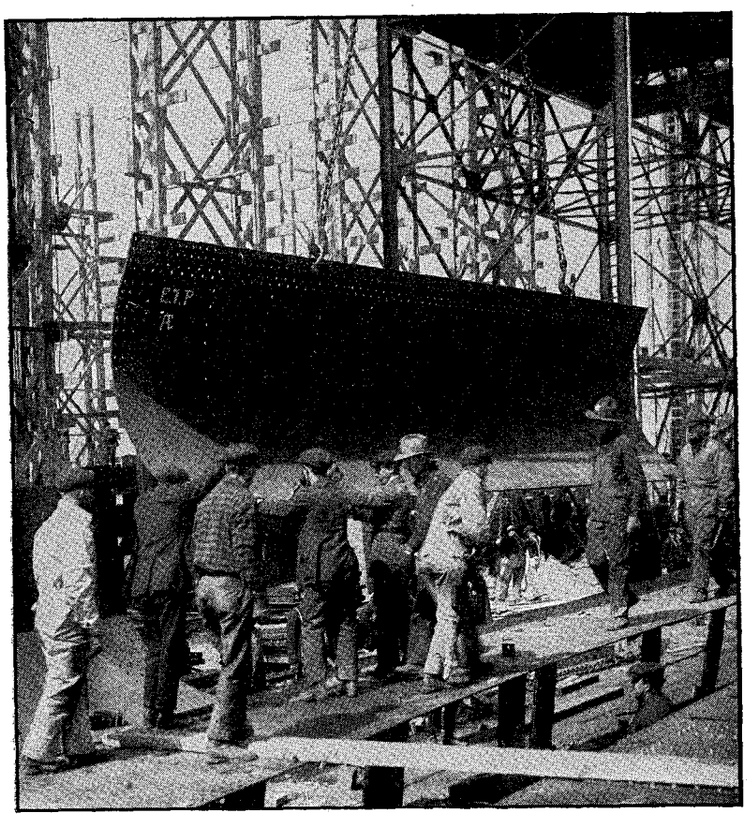
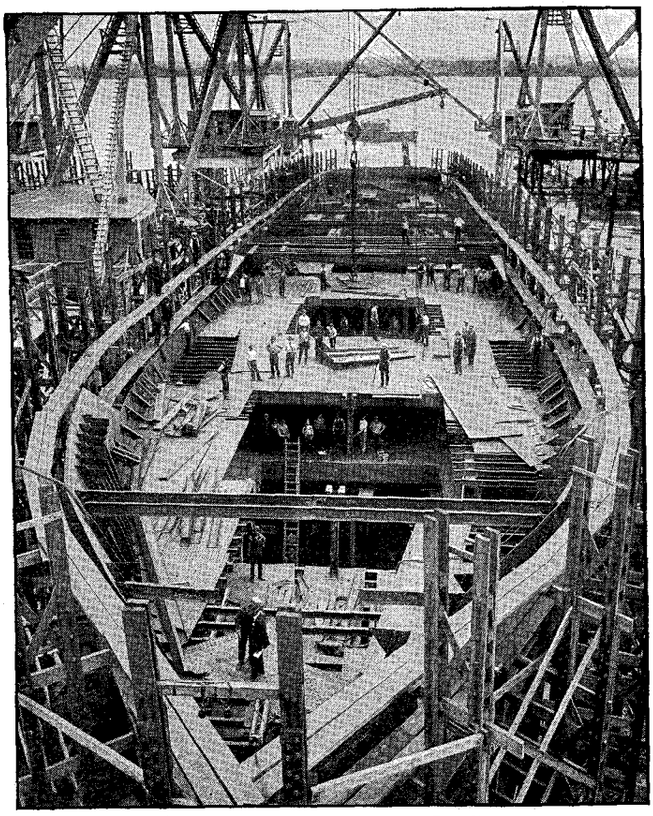


LIFTING A BILGE PLATE INTO LINE



THE HULL NEARING COMPLETION

FABRICATED SHIP

American people, took up the cry, until "Ships, ships, and then more ships!" became a mighty chorus from Maine to California. Some said, "Give us steel ships;" others, "Give us wooden ships;" while a few, thinking of the immediate need for any ships that would float, said, "Give us steel ships, wooden ships, composite ships, and, if there is anything else out of which you can make ships, give us that kind, too." Through it all ran the feeling that something extraordinary and unheard of would have to be found to produce the ships in sufficient numbers. Suddenly to convert our immense forests into a mighty fleet of wooden ships that should confound the submarines by their very numbers appealed to the imagination. The wooden ships did fill a great need, but they could not ultimately solve our problem. In an age of steel it was in steel-ship building that the hope of the future lay.

During these anxious days the Emergency Fleet Corporation were doing what they could. There were about 2,800,000 tons carrying capacity (dead-weight) in steel ships already under way in the going yards when war was declared, and which the President could commandeer. By the middle of 1917 they had been able to place new contracts for about 1,800,000 tons more, of which one-third was for steel and two-thirds for wooden ships. They had done this by distributing orders to the already hard-pressed shipyards, which were building new shops and ways as as fast as they could, and by encouraging the building of new yards. Of these latter an extraordinary number had been started for both steel and wooden ships. With all this tonnage, building or ordered, it seemed possible to complete about 3,000,000 tons in the next eighteen months. Compared to our total ship-building for 1916—800,000 tons (dead-weight)—it was a worthy showing. It seemed to be America's utmost.

But how inadequate compared to the needs of our allies and ourselves! There was already at the end of 1916, as we have seen, a world shortage of ship tonnage of about one-fifth, or twenty per cent. At this height of submarine warfare this shortage was increasing (destruction against construction) at the rate of over one per cent of the normal world tonnage per month, and it was not then known that the rate of destruction could be curtailed. In addition to that we were preparing to send an army to Europe, which had not only to be put overseas as speedily as possible, but maintained there under arms. Leaving out of account the ships for transporting these troops, it was calculated that five tons of shipping space per annum would be needed per man for maintaining them. This would mean 5,000,000 tons of ships for this use alone for every million men, and we were to send several million men.

The gist of all calculations was that we needed at least 6,000,000 tons of ships just as soon as we could get them. But, in spite of all calculations, what more could be done? The shipyards, old and new, were taxed to capacity; they were speeding up all they could, and, what was most serious of all, they had begun to bid against each other for skilled ship-builders. The supply of wooden-ship workers had been quickly exhausted, and now even the steel-ship yards were finding it difficult to man their shops and ways. The industry seemed to have reached the limit of expansion. But right at this point, in July, 1917, the Fleet Corporation announced their intention of asking Congress for money to double their estimated 3,000,000-ton output by building simultaneously another 3,000,000 tons! What did they have in mind? What idea was behind them to prompt that action? Evidently some conception of ship-building altogether new, brushing aside time-honored limitations, revolutionary!

THE NEW IDEA

There did not seem to be anything out of which to produce this 3,000,000 tons additional unless it were some new idea. That idea was at hand. We are fighting this war with new ideas, anyway, and in the vision of a group of big men of big organizations a revolution in steel-ship building had been carried out.

Steel-ship building, like all ship-building, was an art of tradition. A new method was the only solution. In the then established yards, old and new, ships were built, as it were, in hand-wrought, made-to-order fashion, the way they had always been built (except that steel had supplanted wood) ever since the venturesome spirit of man, *illi robur et æs triplex*, had first trusted his treasure and his hope to the seas. Every vital part of the ship—shell, frame, motive power, rigging—was wrought in special shops adjacent to the ship-building ways. Only the minor auxiliary equipment, such as steering-engines, windlasses, capstans, pumps, was ordered from outside manufacturers. In the first place, every order for a ship was apt to be for a different type, with special features demanded in the design. Duplicates of previously built types could be ordered but, except that the drawings would be already made, execution would be the same as for a newly designed ship.

Every vessel stood by itself as a separate piece of workman-

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ship. After the design was carefully made up, the steel and iron required were simply ordered from the mills in commercial shapes and sizes—as plates, angles, channels, etc.—and turned over to the special shops in the yard; the steel plates and members of the framework to be carefully punched with holes for the rivets and bent to the proper curvature; the iron to be forged into stern-post, shafts, and similar units of equipment. Likewise the engines and boilers were of special shipyard manufacture, as well as propeller, funnel, mast, and rudder. *The building of the ship was dependent, as it were, on one set of fine tools.* Ships could not be put together (erected and riveted) on the ways of a given shipyard any faster than this one set of tools could work. Nor was there any use creating more shipyards and more sets of tools if there were no more skilled shipbuilders to use them. Ship-building was like the craft of the iron-workers of old Venice—its product was graceful, durable, unexcelled; but it took a long time, and the ultimate quantity of its product was limited by the supply of its own artisans. In face of the fact that the whole Nation had now got to devote itself to ship-building, the industry ignored the division of labor. It had never been changed, because never before had there been a demand for a sufficient number of ships at one time to disturb the old order of things. But now, in 1917, came a demand for 3,000,000 tons more of ships at once apparently out of nothing; and the answer was, Abandon made-to-order methods and manufacture them!

The essence of ship-building is in the shops. Once the parts have been put through the shops, it is simply a matter of assembly. Therefore the limitation of ship production is the limitation of the production of the shops. The significance of this led, in the hour of the Nation's crisis, to a momentous speculation: "In order to make a big increase in ship output quickly, why could not this shop work be distributed to plants all over the country by supplying them with the necessary patterns?" The only differences between the old method and the new method would be the difference between shops a few yards or many miles from the shipways and the difference between one organization and many different ones. If the existing shipyards, both shops and ways, were overtaxed, were there not hundreds of steel shops throughout the interior of the country capable of fabricating steel to make parts of ships, and, that being so, could not shipways be built at tide-water for assembling these parts? These parts could then be shipped ready-made to the seaboard, there to be assembled into units that would float and carry cargo. There were, of course, no more fabricators of ships' parts as such, but what about the structural and bridge industry, which had attained such great efficiency in this country? Should the Nation of mighty steel bridges and towering sky-scrapers be limited in supply of beams and frames and plates for ships? The structural industry might truly be called first cousin to ship-building. These shops might quickly be adapted to the new purpose, if shown what was wanted. They were specialists in the line of fabricating steel, and they had at hand their trained forces of skilled workers already organized. They were ready and willing to turn their hands to the task.

Here was a bold conception which, if worked out on a sufficiently large scale, would supply the needed ships. It would bring ship-building into line with twentieth-century America. Mr. Baldwin, of the American International, who had been making a careful study of the ship-building question through the New York ship-building organization, was quick to grasp the possibilities. He saw that this new conception, having been thought out carefully, and being, however startling, absolutely sound, was ready to be translated into action. This was the "fabricated ship" idea. It was—to give that new name its full meaning—quantity production of ships. It was to manufacture quickly in volume as a standardized product what up to then had been, as we have seen, the elaborately fashioned work of the artisan.

But the heart of the matter was this: To make possible this distribution of steel-hull fabrication to many interior plants there must be something more than duplication of standard shipyard types of vessels, as the term "standard" was heretofore understood. For these types were only adaptable to approximate reproduction in the existing yards themselves by the old methods. The new idea required:

1. *The designing of a steel vessel so radically simplified that all the vessels to be built could be not merely built, but manufactured as exact reproductions.* Thus to standardize construction meant that every possible variation in size and shape of material must be eliminated.

2. *The actual reproduction of these vessels in unprecedented numbers, every one of identical construction, thus permitting the use of the factory methods in which America is pre-eminent.* A big volume of output would alone supply the need for many ships quickly, and a big volume alone would render this tremendous conception itself feasible.

Simplification of design first. All non-essentials must be removed. The traditional vessel of the seas is a structure of elaborate curvature and rakish sweep. The bottom slopes gradually up from the keel (dead rise); the sides bend gradually in as the level of the deck is reached (tumble-home); beginning amidships, the deck itself has an upward curvature from the horizontal in the fore and aft direction (shear); the surface of the deck is a convexity (camber). These sweeping lines mean many curved plates, plates of many curves, a framework of complex bending. Such work as this could not be manufactured; therefore the ship must be squared and straightened. In the midships section it could be made as square as a box, and at the ends the curvature could be reduced to a minimum. This was done by eliminating "tumble-home" and having straight sides; eliminating camber and shear and having a flat deck; eliminating dead rise and having a flat bottom. Thus curvature of plates (particularly that requiring multiple bending) and uneven lengths for upright members were, as far as possible, eliminated. A design of boat was obtained which carefully combined the best ship-builders' and *bridge-builders'* practice. As one of the leading engineers described it:

"We took every piece in the ship and examined it to see whether we could reduce the number of operations involved. We called in the shop men, and they did the same."

Here was a ship that could be turned over to the structural and bridge builders to manufacture in Pittsburgh, Youngstown, Cleveland, or Toronto, Canada, and the parts forwarded to the coast for assembly. All they needed to begin work was *patterns.* These patterns of the plates, shapes, and other parts, made up in wooden framework, are known in ship-building as templets. They are used in every shipyard. The new plan called for a comprehensive system of templets developed to a far greater degree than anything hitherto known in either ship or bridge building, to insure such accurate reproduction that all the parts would fit. With these patterns for every different part to guide them, the shops could fabricate 100, 200, or 1,000 ships, if necessary. One templet would serve for a corresponding hull plate, say, for as many ships as the programme called for, since every ship was identical. Limitation of output thus had entirely disappeared.

To manufacture all vessels alike was, it can be seen from this, the essence of the plan. Manufacturing methods apply themselves to uniformity; make uniformity a practical possibility for the product desired, and quantity output is the spontaneous result. Uniformity was a new idea in ship-building; but it was right it was sound, and it saved the day.

It was in the working out of this design of ship, and then of the templets to govern its manufacture, that New York Ship-Building Corporation fulfilled its function as the technical arm of the American International's ship-building programme. Their corps of experienced engineers were admirably prepared to accomplish the solution of this new problem. For it must be borne in mind that the new ship, though radical in design, had to be developed in every detail in line with the soundest ship-building practice, embodying throughout the maximum of expert knowledge. New York Ship-Building Corporation not only co-operated in the development of the design of the seventy-five-hundred-ton ship to be built by the American International, but they were later to make up in their own shop the templets that would be sent all over North America to serve collectively as patterns for that ship that can be multiplied indefinitely.

It was quickly seen that it would take about 200 ships to work out this multiple production scheme so that it would be most successful. Quantity output has quantity as its *raison d'être*, so that the order for ships must be large enough to justify the whole operation. Furthermore, as all these ships had to be got quickly, the assembling yard would have to be of large simultaneous capacity—that is, with a much larger number of

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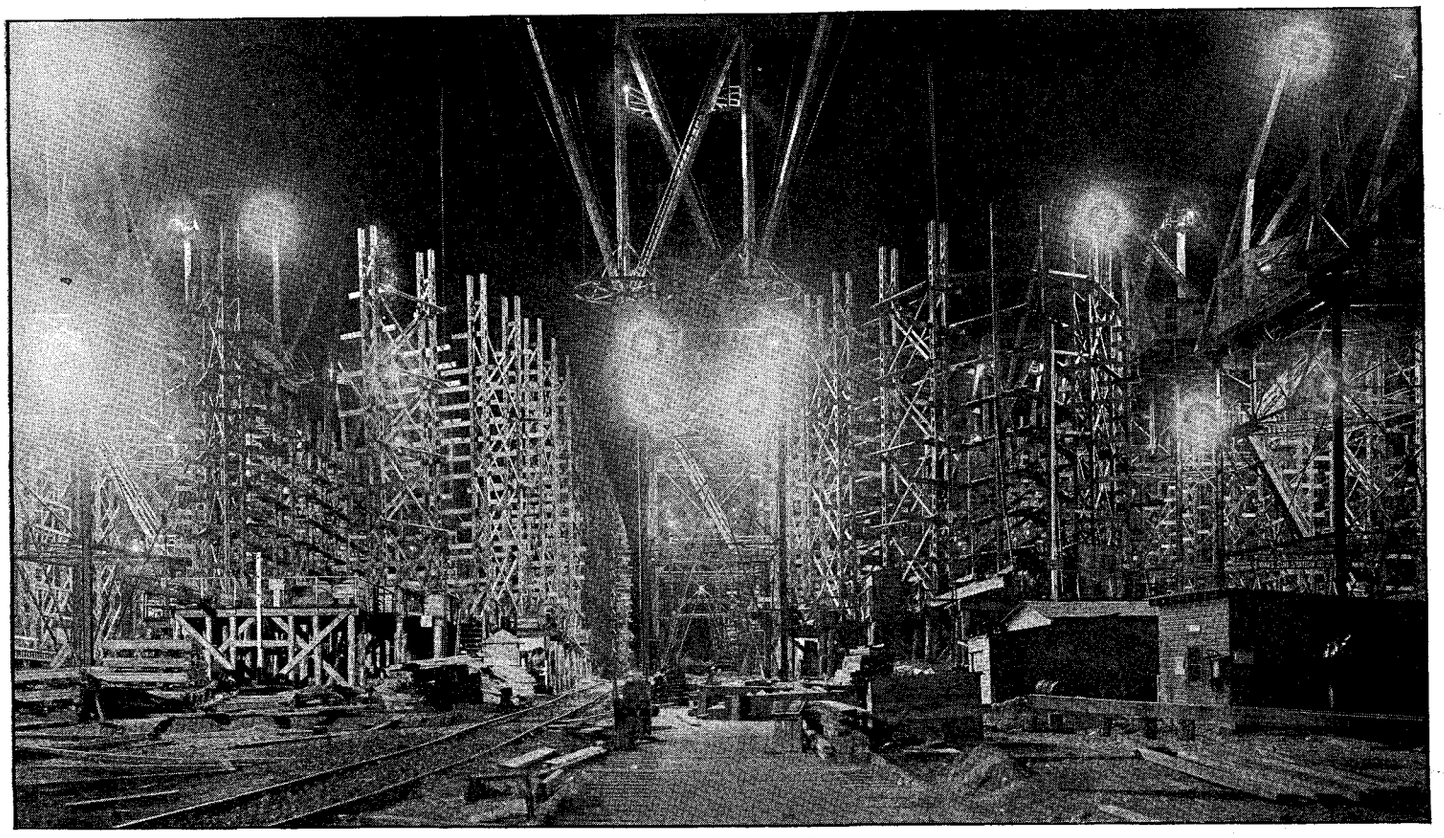

SHIPWAYS AT NIGHT

shipways than had ever been thought of in the traditional conception of a shipyard. Ten ways constituted about the largest shipyard in the world; the American International planned a yard of fifty ways. We needed a lot of ships, and we needed them quickly, and we needed them all at the same time. The idea, in the first place, was a colossal one; it had to be executed on a colossal scale.

Now distribution of manufacture was not confined to the hull of the ship. The engines (turbines) would be ordered from the best engine-builders in the country whose specialty was engines; the boilers, from specialists in boiler construction. All the necessary forgings (as stern-posts, connecting-rods, etc.), all the auxiliaries, and, in fact, every item of equipment going into the finished ship, would be placed as special orders with those who had the most available capacity and experience to produce them. In short, the ship was divided up over the country, so that every one might do his share. All the unused resources of the Nation which were capable of relating themselves to shipbuilding were mobilized.

By this means, not only was the problem of materials and equipment solved, but, at the same time, the even more crucial one of labor. Skilled ship-builders could not be had; they were all already occupied in the established shipyards. But skilled specialists in the manufacture of identical or similar items of equipment, which in the number of about twenty thousand make up a complete steel steamer, were located at their accustomed tasks all over the country, the already organized forces of many different plants. They could continue right where they were; only let them work at ships' parts instead of tank or bridge or sky-scraper parts, marine engines instead of land engines, ships' boilers instead of factory boilers. Then there need not be any disorganizing concentration of this available skilled labor at new shipyards, which should rob the old plants and perhaps not enrich the new yards. None of them needed to change his place or his work; all they needed to do was to alter the purpose of it. At the ship assembling yard itself a minimum of skilled shipyard labor would be required, because the operations would only involve fitting together carefully reproduced pieces, all of identical pattern, with their places and purposes accurately indicated by numbers. After a little practice, it could be made a matter of mechanical precision—simply to assemble ships the way you would motor cars.

In this manner, with the plan of a vast assembling yard to which should flow manufactured parts and equipment from many different portions of the country, you might be said to convert the varied industrial forces of a whole nation into shipworkers almost at a word, and to undertake to put as many ships together as all those workers might turn out.

Such an undertaking meant the greatest industrial responsibility that had ever been assumed in this country. It was radical. Old ship-builders said it could not be done. There would be no condonation for failure. Its scope was unprecedented. Next to the operations of government itself, there was nothing with which to compare it. There would be unexpected problems, for all was as yet untried. It required vision first to see that it was possible; courage to accept the responsibility; experience in directing cycles of big operations to be able to push it through. It called for organizations and men who should face a task for builders of empire. American International Corporation and Mr. George J. Baldwin, its senior vice-president, were ready to do their part.

From the very first an essential part of the scheme, as far as the American International was concerned, was Stone & Webster. Synchronizing with the manufacture of parts, the putting together of these new ships was planned to be carried out in an assembling yard five times as large as the largest shipyard in the world. That yard did not exist; it was going to be necessary to create it, and to create it to be ready to begin assembling those parts by the time they should begin pouring out of the shops and factories. It was going to be necessary to perform one of the biggest feats of engineering construction ever undertaken in months instead of years. Mr. Stone, President of the American International, and senior partner of the great engineering firm of Stone & Webster, saw from the first that it would be necessary to have a vast constructing organization of the widest experience to accomplish this. There was no time for building up such an organization gradually; it would have to be ready at a moment's notice.

Stone & Webster were that organization. They had had twenty-five years of experience, during which time they had handled many million dollars' worth of contract engineering work of every type. Their organized force consisted of several hundred superintendents, engineers, and foremen. They were then engaged upon the construction of numerous arsenals and army cantonments for the United States Government, and, in particular, they were just completing the San Antonio cantonment in record time. What they could do was shown by contemporaneous performance. Their share in this new ship-

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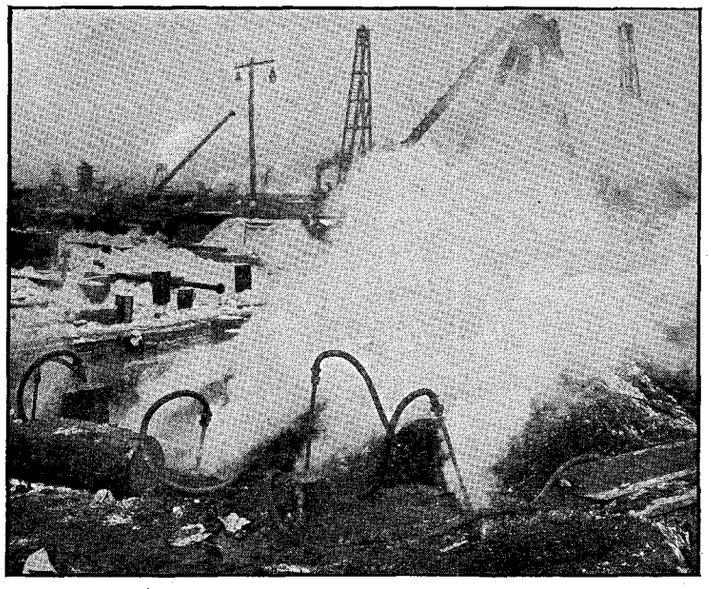

THAWING FROZEN GROUND

"Where ordinarily there would have been a few inches of frost in the ground, that winter it went down over three feet. The ground had to be thawed out with live steam or dynamited"

THE SHIP-BUILDERS' TRENCHES

"Ninety thousand feet of high-pressure piping, 120,000 feet of domestic water-piping, and a sewerage system for 30,000 people with nearly fourteen miles of pipes—all had to be put down"

building plan—their enlistment to build the shipyard—was an inevitability.

NEGOTIATIONS

Early in May, 1917, Mr. Baldwin saw General Goethals and told him that the American International was ready to help build the 3,000,000 tons additional of ships by manufacturing them. Two other groups were working along the same lines—the Submarine Boat Corporation and the newly organized Merchant Ship-Building Corporation. Theodore E. Ferris, then Naval Architect of the Fleet Corporation, prepared for General Goethals tentative designs of three sizes of boats it was desired to build. These were for a boat of 5,000 tons dead-weight, one of 7,500 tons, and one of 9,000 tons. It was proposed to divide the entire 3,000,000-ton programme into these three sizes of boats, and between the three corporations. Merchant Ship-Building was to build forty 9,000-ton boats; Submarine Boat, two hundred of 5,000 tons; and American International, two hundred of 7,500 tons; under General Goethals's direction the entire fabricated ship scheme was worked out with the utmost co-operation between the three groups. "For otherwise," the General had said, "here is what will happen: You will all try to get your pumps from one place, you will all try to get your boilers from one place, and so on; and in that way you will have those places congested so that they cannot produce what you want. But you should distribute your orders around over the industry throughout the country."

In the spirit of what the General had said, the American International went to work through the spring and early summer to determine where throughout the country the 20,000 parts of that 7,500-ton ship could be made. The structural shops, the forge shops, the engine and boiler builders, even the makers of ships' hardware, were canvassed. By careful and persistent investigation the collective manufacturers of the complete vessel were tentatively enlisted, and when it is stated that now these ships are actually being assembled from parts comprising the output of some 3,500 factories, it can be seen what the task was. The work was so thoroughly done that when, in the following autumn, the time finally came actually to mobilize the industry and sign contracts for the output, the question took care of itself.

Another part of the summer's preparations was the search for a site for the yard in which the American International was to build the 7,500-ton ships. It should be near the ocean, yet sheltered from attack by sea; its water-front should be not less than two miles, the channel deep enough to launch the ships; it should have railway facilities to handle 300 cars a day; it should be near an industrial center with an abundant supply of labor, skilled and unskilled, and housing facilities for both; it should command a supply of electrical power sufficient in itself for a large city. After an investigation of the entire Atlantic coast-line from Boston to Baltimore, Hog Island, near Philadelphia, on the Delaware, was chosen.

Then, on the 24th of July, 1917, after all preparations had been made and the proposed contract with the Emergency Fleet Corporation had actually been printed, came the resignation of General Goethals—regrettable sequel of a regrettable controversy. It meant inevitable delay; particularly was it unfortunate for the speed of the fabricated ship programme, for, as the contract was not finally signed until the following autumn, the crux of the construction of the shipyard was thrown into the bitter months of the never-to-be-forgotten winter of 1917–18.

THE CONTRACT

At length, on September 13, 1917, after renewed negotiations with the Fleet Corporation, the contract was signed. It called for the construction of a yard with fifty ways and the building in that yard of fifty 7,500-ton steel cargo steamers of 11½ knots speed, the vessels alone to cost over $50,000,000. It forecast orders for a total of 200 of these vessels.

On October 23 a supplementary order (based on an option in the original contract) was signed for seventy 8,000-ton boats of similar type, but with troop accommodations and 15 knots speed, known as type "B." It was the 7,500-ton boat altered for use as a transport, but equally adaptable to quantity production. This made a total of 120 vessels ordered, and by reason of the change to two types, the latter more costly, was understood as the equivalent of 200 of the 7,500-ton, or "A," boats.

Finally, on May 7 of this year, a still further order for 60 more "A" boats was received, making a total to date of 180 vessels—110 "A" type and 70 "B" type.

This is the largest single contract in the world, so far as is known. The total cost of the vessels alone is considerably over $200,000,000. The time in which it is to be executed (building both the yard itself and all the vessels) is equally remarkable. The last boat of the 180 is to be delivered complete by August, 1919, or in a total of 22½ months after the signing of the original contract, when nothing existed of the whole project but the carefully worked out plan.

The cost of construction, both yard and ships, is disbursed by the Government as the work progresses, in accordance with modern principles of war finance, not only giving the Government a constant supervision of all expenditures, but avoiding the flotation of corporate securities concurrently with the Government war loans.

For carrying out this entire programme American International Corporation receives a specified fee for every vessel built; for building the yard itself, no profit whatever. The total fee for all the ships actually amounts to about four and a half per cent of the cost of all the ships, and less than four per cent of the cost of the entire work, including the yard. As a

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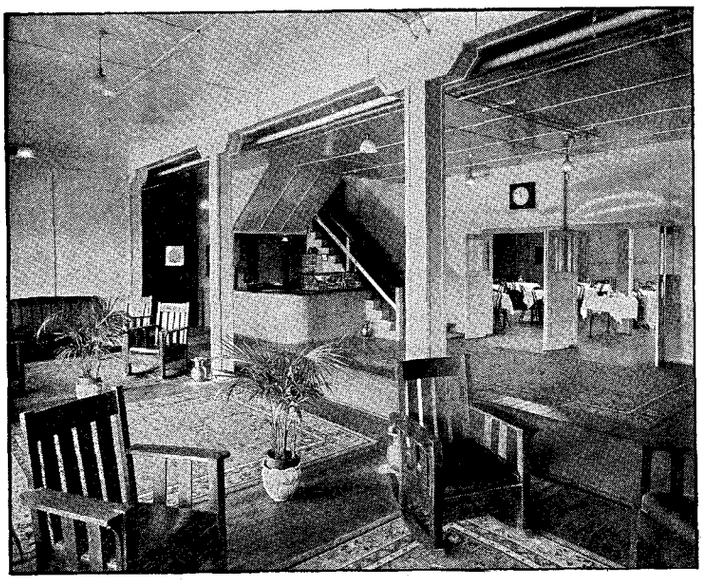

MAIN HOTEL LOBBY

"There are barracks for 6,000 workmen, three guards' barracks, a handsome Y. M. C. A., a hotel, a central cafeteria, mess-halls, a modern emergency hospital, besides the innumerable auxiliary buildings, which make up a city within itself"

NOONTIME AT THE CANTEEN

The men who built the yard at Hog Island were doing their part like the men in the training camps. "And because they did their part . . . the result to-day is—the work was completed on time"

corporate body to act as agent in performing the contract American International Ship-Building Corporation was created.

But the essence of the contract was *speed*. The Government said, in formal legal language: "Give us ships, and give us them quickly."

PERFORMANCES

The contract was signed on Thursday. On the following Monday the general manager of the work (of Stone & Webster) and his staff of assistants were on the ground. A memorable conference was held, and immediately afterwards telegrams were sent all over the United States, calling four hundred superintendents, engineers, and foremen of the Stone & Webster organization from other fields. It was the commander-in-chief of a great industrial expeditionary force establishing his headquarters in advance of the coming of the army of workers and summoning his corps, division, and battalion commanders to report for immediate duty. The watchword was, "Speed," and it was never changed to any other.

A rough wooded island, the casual haunt of the autumn sportsman; no roads, or, if any, worse than none, and no rail or trolley lines to bring the quickly recruited workmen nearer the scene than a mile and a half. That was the situation. To clear, to dig, to make roads, to grade, to lay tracks, to drive piles, to build—those were some of the things that had to be done at once. At most there would be only about two months of good weather before the winter set in. And the yard was to be built in ten months! Surveyors, engineers, construction men, were now teammates, now competitors, in a continuous engineering relay-race. But what with a less tried organization might have been mere haste with this one was real speed, because to these men a right decision meant, not the choice between two different ways of doing a thing, but the one inevitable way taught by experience.

There was a task ahead for which, in size and in time to complete, the past furnished no comparisons. Here were some nine hundred acres of land to be converted in a few months into an industrial city of over 25,000 workers, which should also be the greatest ship-building machine ever created. There was this enormous working force itself to be enrolled as quickly as it could be and their numbers kept at full strength, regardless of turnover. Of these, many thousands must be fed and sheltered on the island itself; for the many thousand others housing must be found in near-by Philadelphia and the means of transit back and forth. At the scene of work these thousands of men must be kept continuously deployed at the successive points where they were needed. There were temporary buildings, then shops, office buildings, workmen's barracks, warehouses, an immense railway switching system, a mile of shipways, and a mile of wet basins to be built. There were power facilities, water facilities, handling facilities for the yard, hundreds of derricks and other handling machinery for the ways, to be installed. For this building and this installation a quantity and diversity of materials, equipment, and stores must be ordered, such that its volume pouring into the yard would keep four or five thousand loaded freight cars continuously routed toward Hog Island, of which at least 100, and sometimes over 300, would have to be received and unloaded every day. It was to perform one of the biggest engineering jobs the world has ever seen practically overnight.

OVERCOMING THE ENEMY'S ALLY, WINTER

Early in December the coldest winter in living memory set in, and continued until March. During the whole of December and January the thermometer went above freezing only twice, and most of the time it was far below. February was little different. The work could not stop. There was no shelter for the men from the biting wind. Materials came in on the freight cars frozen solid. Hundreds of car-loads of cinders had to be thawed out with steam. A thousand tons of coal a day were needed, and the cars came in frozen so that it all had to be picked out. The shipways and basins called for the use of no less than 150,000 piles, and of these an immense number had to be driven during those months through the frozen earth. Where ordinarily there would have been a few inches of frost in the ground, that winter it went down over three feet. The ground had to be thawed out with live steam or dynamited. Also, in spite of these conditions, 90,000 feet of high-pressure piping, 120,000 feet of domestic water-piping, and a sewerage system for 30,000 people with nearly fourteen miles of pipes—all had to be put down. The trenching could not be done by pick and shovel, although there were 10,000 picks and 20,000 shovels! It all had to be blasted out.

During these days transportation from Philadelphia for the workers, inadequate before, all but failed. The men often spent two hours each way between work and home. A heavy shifting in the force was inevitable. To keep the number up to the twenty or twenty-five thousand needed often required a weekly enrollment as high as thirty-five thousand. But those that stayed worked on with earnest heroism through rigors nearly as great as those of the trenches overseas, because they realized that the work they were doing was next in importance to the work in the trenches. And because they did their part then, and their foremen and superintendents and executives did their part, though to the heavy hardships of that winter was added the worse one of the world's criticism, the result to-day is—the work was completed on time!

The yard is practically complete to-day, ten months after the first surveyor ran a line through the length of the island—a shipyard as large as Cramp's, Fore River, Maryland Steel, Newport News, New York Ship-Building, and Union Iron Works all together at the outbreak of the war. There are, side by side, extending for a mile and a quarter along the river-

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front, fifty building ways for ships, completely equipped with a highly flexible system of derricks for assembling. These ways are operated in ten groups of five, each of which groups, with auxiliary buildings and tool-shops, is an independent ship-assembling unit. Adjoining these and forming a continuous water-front for another mile and a quarter (which makes a total of two miles and a half) are the ship-outfitting basins, with seven piers, each 1,000 feet long, and outfitting berths to accommodate twenty-eight vessels at one time during the period between launching and completion. To bring into the yard, sort, and distribute to the ways and basins the unassembled ships' parts—output of over threescore structural shops and over three thousand factories of every kind—there is a railway terminal system of eighty miles of tracks. This is divided into an immense classification yard and two material storage yards, comprehensively interconnected with spurs to the ways. In these yards, along the tracks, are piled the fabricated steel parts as they arrive, whose total quantity for all the ships now on order will be about 500,000 tons. The lighter equipment is stored in a mile's extent of freight warehouses. The work of loading and unloading in the yard constantly occupies seventy large locomotive cranes.

There are twenty-five acres under roof, about 250 permanent buildings. First of all, the shops: plate and angle shop, templet shop, machine shops, pipe shop, air tool shop, etc. Then there is the second largest air-compressor plant in the world, with a capacity of 75,000 cubic feet per minute. There is a central administration building housing 1,650, and an engineers' building for 750 engineers and draughtsmen. There are barracks for 6,000 workmen, three guards' barracks, a handsome Y. M. C. A., a hotel, a central cafeteria, mess-halls, a model emergency hospital, besides the innumerable auxiliary buildings, which make up a city within itself. Serving all is an electric-power sub-station of 24,000 kilowatts. It is one of the permanent headquarters of industrial America mobilized—on active service!

THE SUBMARINE'S THREAT ANSWERED

As for the ships—building them began when the yard was only half completed. There are now thirty-seven vessels on the ways in progressive stages of construction. Very soon there will be fifty. At the height of activity, which will be before the end of the year, there will be fifty vessels on the ways, and twenty-eight more—already launched—in the finishing basins; or seventy-eight under construction at one time—over two miles of ships! As fast as the boats are launched other keels will be laid, and as fast as they are delivered others will pass to the outfitting piers. Three steel hulls a week will slide from the launching ways into the Delaware, and three completed steel steamers a week will be delivered to the Government. Everything is on schedule time. All promises have been fulfilled.

Thirty thousand men are engaged on this work in a spirit of the keenest emulation. New men are rapidly trained, six hundred at a time, in a school for ship-builders on the island, and readily take their places beside the others. All are becoming adepts in the new trade of ship erection and assembly, which, it may be said, is giving better results even than anticipated. Those fabricated parts from North, East, West, and South *fit*, and generally not even the rivet holes have had to be adjusted.

These workers know well the part they are playing. It is not for nothing that their riveting machines are called "guns," for, although they are not weapons of attack, but weapons of construction, their effective work is ultimately solving the problem both of attack and defense, for it is placing millions of armed men in that line in France long since recognized as the frontier of civilization.

August 5 was the date set for the first of the fabricated ships from Hog Island to take the water, with a splash that must soon swell into a tidal wave rolling in the direction of Germany. It is a date of importance in the history of America's part in the great war, for, when that history comes to be written, the fabricated ship will have a worthy place. The launching of this vessel, witnessed by about seventy-five thousand people, is the earnest of at least 179 other vessels to follow from this yard alone—a promise from America to her allies. It is the proof that the threat of the submarine has already been answered; that soon it will be nullified.

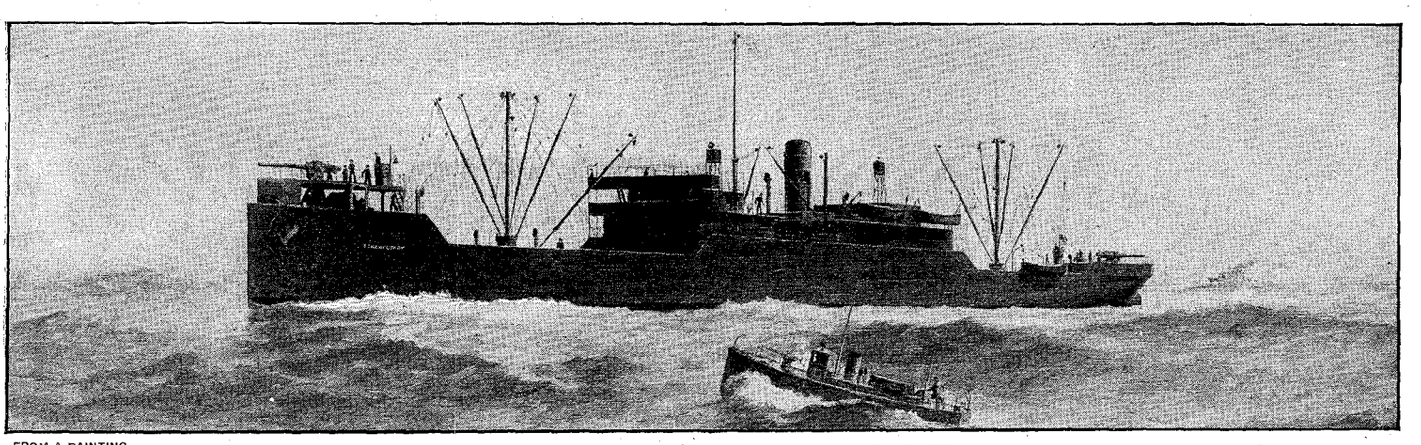
This boat is a 7,500-ton steel cargo steamer, 400 feet long, 54 feet beam, and 24 feet draught, loaded. When completed, she will have a 2,500-horse-power turbine engine capable of driving her at a speed of 11½ knots. She will have the highest marine classification from the American Bureau of Shipping and Lloyd's—100A 1.

In twenty-two and a half months from the time the contract was signed Hog Island will deliver 1,385,000 tons carrying capacity of ships. When the yard is in full operation, it will have a capacity of 1,500,000 tons per year. This is over three times the entire yearly ship-building output of America before the war, which was only about 400,000 tons.

By the fabricated method production of ships can be increased practically without limit. It is not necessary to build more shipyards. Increase the output of the structural steel shops, build more structural shops to make the parts, and there is no end to the number of ships that can be put together and sent to sea, per year, per month, and per day!

THE OUTLOOK

In this manner we are erecting a *bridge of ships* (apt name!), fabricated by the structural and bridge builders of America—a bridge of ships to France and to Britain. Then, while our bond with France was sealed anew in the memorable words of General Pershing—"Here we are, Lafayette!"—announcing the coming to those shores of American land power, let our new bond with Britain be sealed by the timely arrival to the aid of British sea power, in the greatest crisis of the world's history, of American sea power. Let this new transatlantic structure of ships bridge the old misunderstandings, too long played upon by the counselors of disaffection. Thus, as we see the laden American ships steaming past Hog Island slips down the Delaware and out to sea, we can picture for the future two mighty merchant marines—American and British—guarded, if necessary, by invincible navies, which shall jointly work and watch to maintain a new idea of sea power, as unshakable as it is beneficent. Then let no more the specious cry be raised, "Freedom of the seas," by any nation intent upon destroying that freedom, for the pretensions to power of such a one will go the way the submarines of to-day are fated to go—to borrow the phrase of their own makers—"*spurlos versenkt*," sunk without a trace.



FROM A PAINTING

THE FABRICATED SHIP AS IT WILL LOOK WHEN AT SEA

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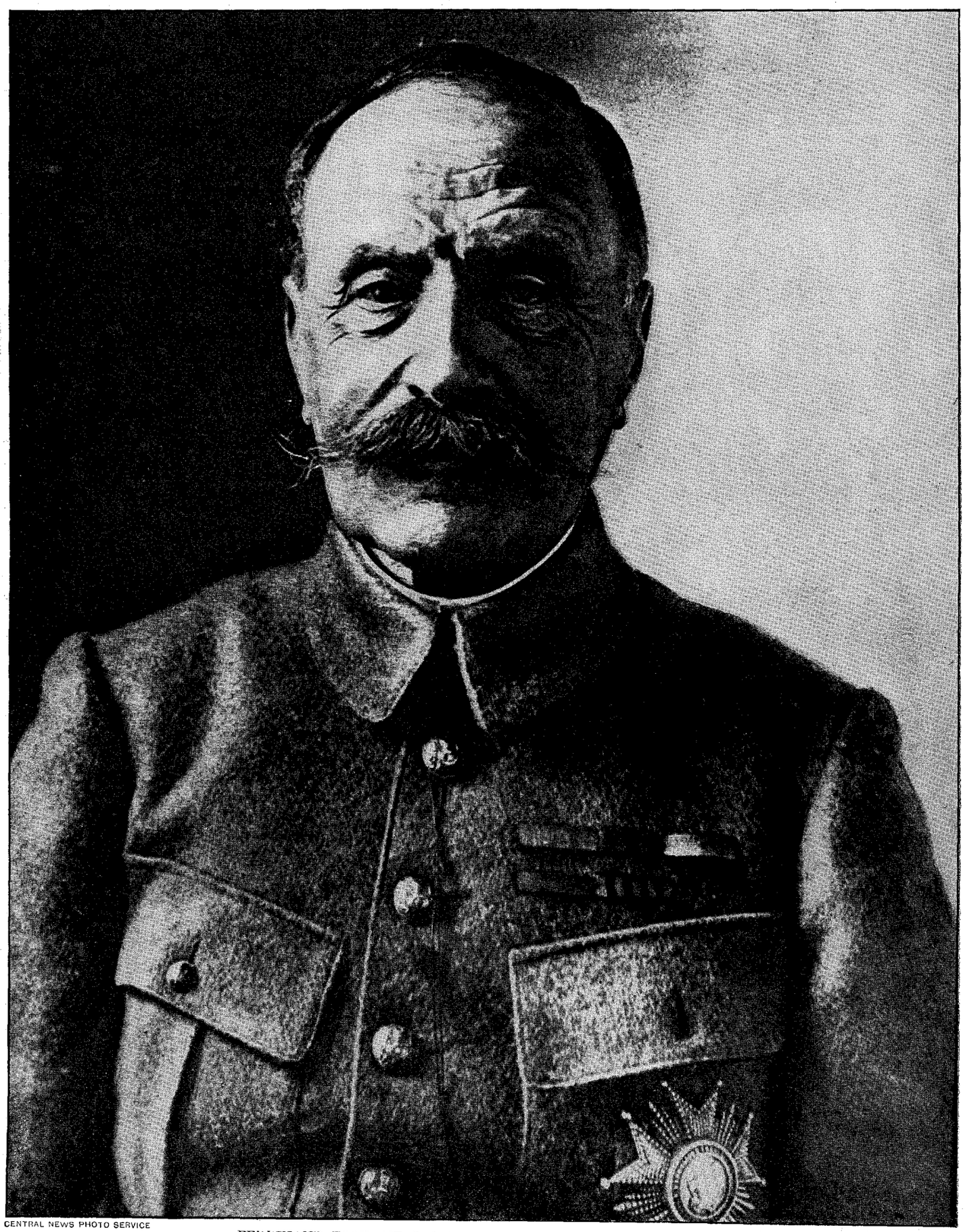
CURRENT EVENTS ILLUSTRATED



CENTRAL NEWS PHOTO SERVICE

FERDINAND FOCH—HE BELONGS TO US AS WELL AS TO FRANCE

General Foch has the unique distinction of being the victor of two great Battles of the Marne. When, over three months ago, the English Prime Minister announced the cordial co-operation of the British, French, and American Governments in accepting General Foch as Commander-in-Chief of the Allied forces on the western front, he predicted that the enemy would no longer have the "incalculable advantage" of fighting as a unit while the Allies fought separately. Events have fully justified that prediction. Whatever the extent of the German defeat in the Marne salient may be, it is already certain that General Foch's skill in strategy and brilliant power of action have been back of the Allies' success

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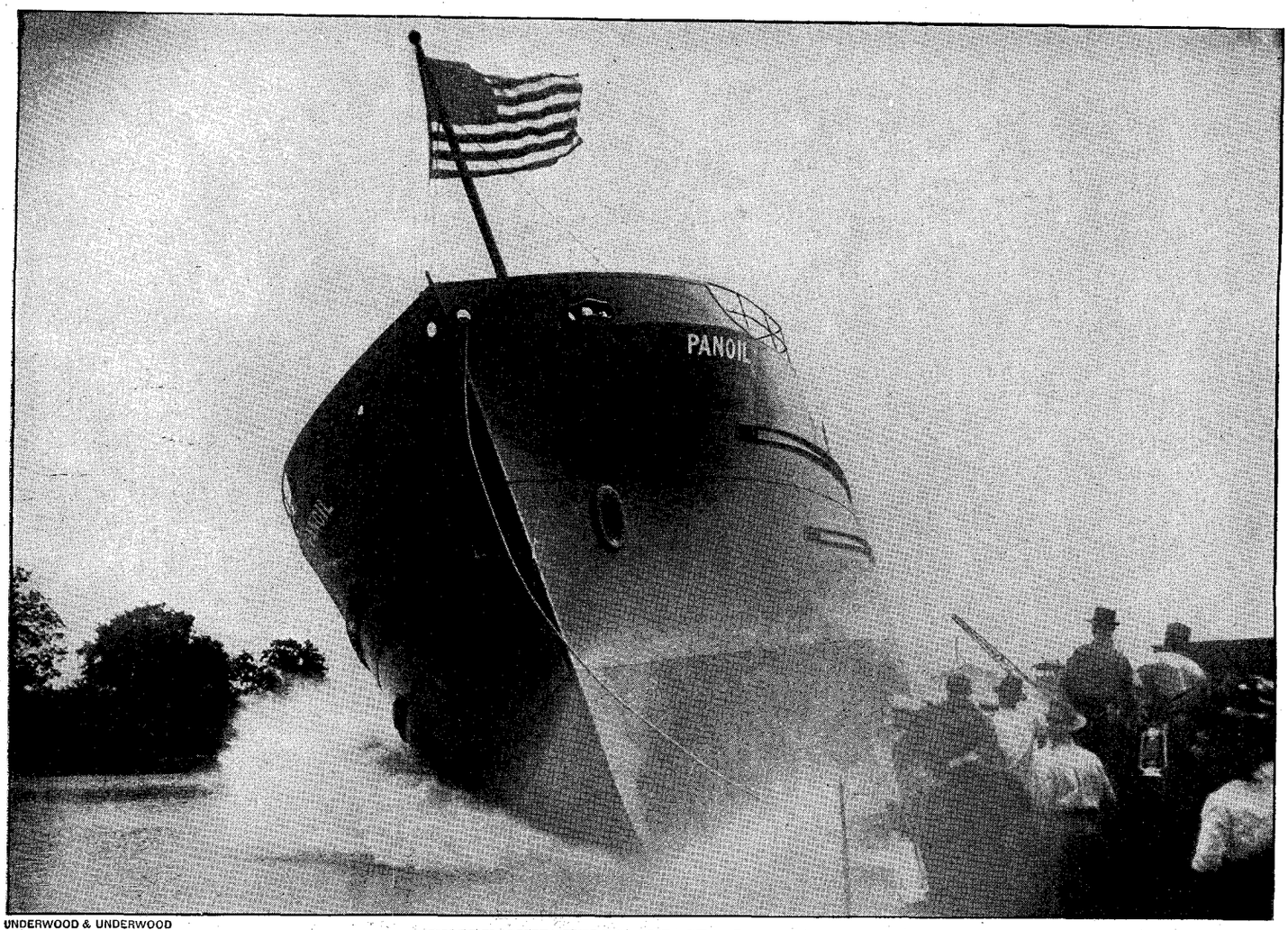

UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

EVERY SHIP HELPS OUR SEA POWER

This ship is a transport, although its name, Panoil, might suggest commercial uses. It was launched at Violet, Louisiana, on June 8, and it seems to take the water with pride and onward rush. Its tonnage is 2,470 dead-weight. Our Southern shipyards are coming into the record of ship-launching in emulation of those North, East, and West

PAUL THOMPSON

FOR SOLDIERS AND SAILORS

The colored women and girls of the country do not mean to be behind their sisters in patriotic work. Here some are seen knitting for sailors and soldiers in the Colored Branch of the Young Women's Christian Association, in West 132d Street, New York City

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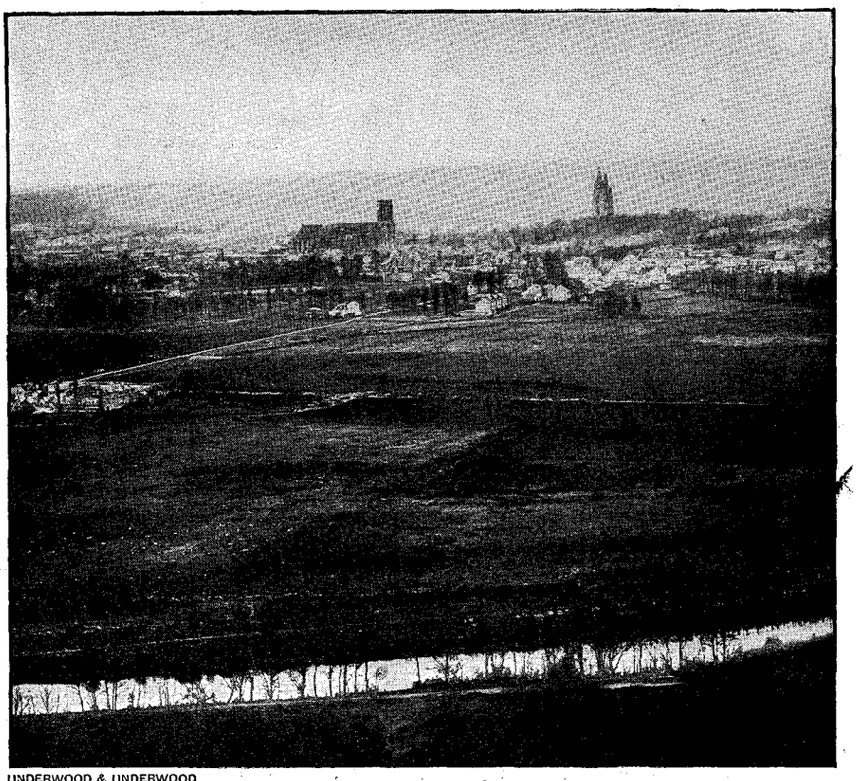
PRESS ILLUSTRATING SERVICE

GENERAL JOSEPH MANGIN

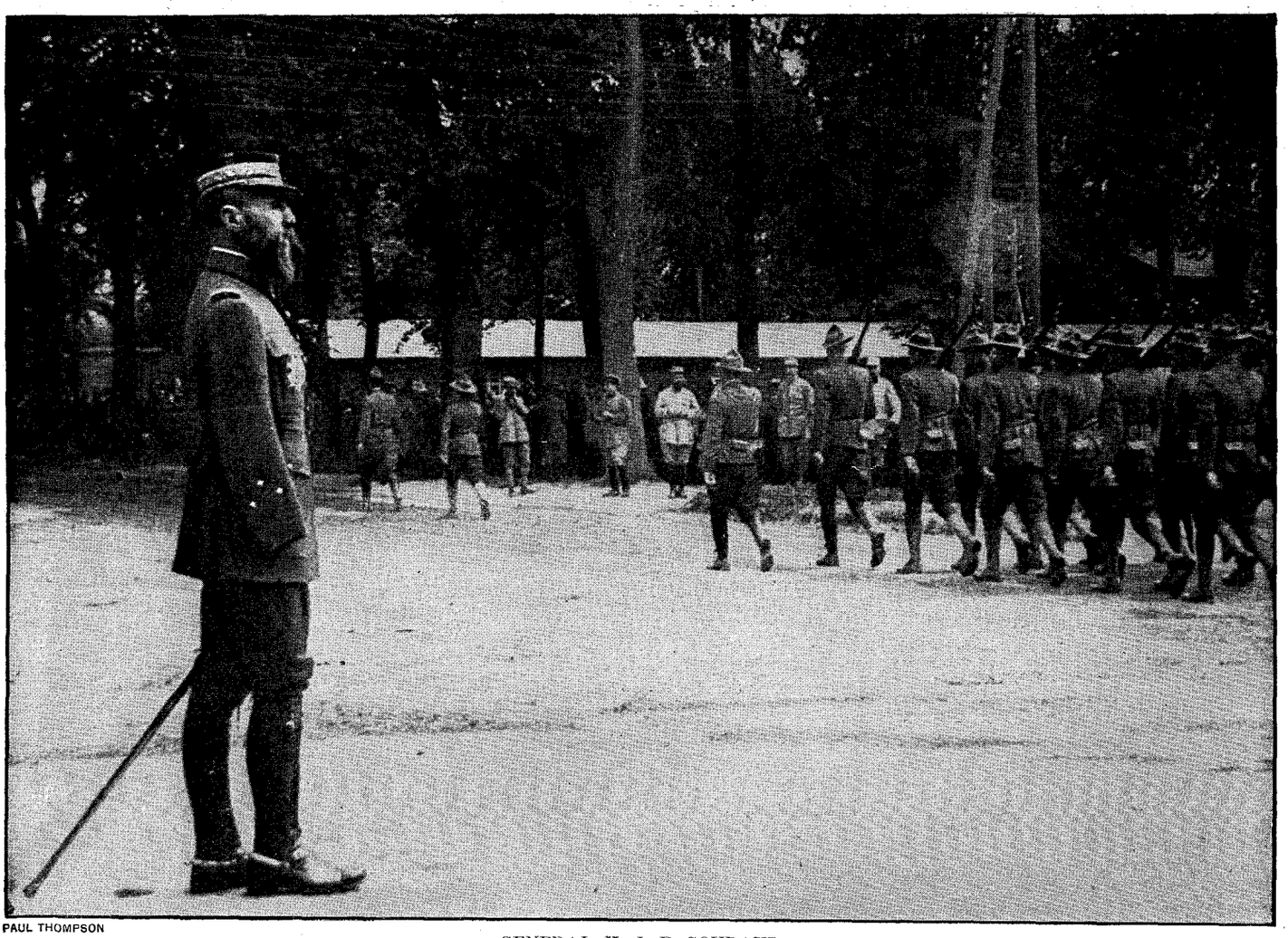
Under the supreme control of General Foch, General Mangin has conducted the splendid advances of French and American troops on the western side of the Marne salient—that is, from Soissons southeast to Château Thierry. To many Americans his name has been little known, but students of the war may remember that he has been one of the most brilliant French commanders, and to him are attributed largely the plans for the defense of Verdun so finely carried out by General Pétain



UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

SOISSONS ON THE AISNE

As we write, Soissons is still in German hands, and there is no question that the Germans mean to hold it as a key position for a new line—a line of defense, no longer of offense. The famous city, now a mass of ruins of houses and churches, was once as beautiful as it is ancient in history. Its situation on a hill makes its defensive value immense



PAUL THOMPSON

GENERAL H. J. E. GOURAUD

This picture has a double interest, in that it is a recent portrait of the famous French General who has been in command of the operations on the eastern side of the Marne salient, and in that it shows American troops being honored by the inspection and approval of the one-armed hero of the Dardanelles

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TO A PHOENICIAN TOMB ON THE COAST OF AFRICA

BY W. KERR RAINSFORD

A lonely grave above the rock-rimmed sea
Where sea-birds call and white sea-flowers spread
Their mantle round the long-forgotten dead
Of other days—brave souls who dauntlessly
Followed the silver way, with sails unfurled
On where the wild white horses beckoning prance
About the trailing garments of Romance
Beyond the pillared gateway of the world—
And since that early morning of our race
All history hath been writ in blood and tears—
And while the echoing tread of empires pass,
Soft in the hush of this enchanted place,
The unremembered current of the years
Brings but new flowers to the wind-blown grass.

GETTING TOGETHER

WHAT THE BRITISH BLUEJACKET THINKS OF THE AMERICAN

BY LEWIS R. FREEMAN

LIEUTENANT ROYAL NAVY VOLUNTEER RESERVE

In connection with this article we may refer to Lieutenant Freeman's article on "How the Officers of the British and American Ships in European Waters are Making Acquaintance" in The Outlook of July 17 last.—THE EDITORS.

THE British naval officer, sapient of many ports and peoples, had a pretty clear idea that in the American naval officer he was going to find an ally who, in spite of a number of superficial differences from himself, would still be a great deal easier to act in intimate co-operation with than any of those with whom he had been fighting up to the time of the entry of the United States into the war. With the British sailor it was different. Only a few of him had ever met any American bluejackets, and these meetings—for the most part confined to the bars and *bunds* of Shanghai, Hongkong, Singapore, and the other ports of the Far East—had not always been of a nature calculated to be promotive of international amity. The American jacky was chiefly remembered by the British for the softness of a speech that belied the hardness of a fist and an astonishing and unaccountable *penchant* for scattering Mexican dollars from rickshaws for coolies to scramble for.

It was a good deal as a brine-pickled old British man-o'-warsman of many years' service said to me a few days ago: "We never had no chanst to know the Yanks afore the present, sir. We was allus eyin' each other distrustful like when we was in the same ports, and we was never gettin' much closer than the length o' a bar apart. Result was that we only seed the few things in them that was diff'rent from what we was, and they likewise wi' us. And o' course we never spotted the things in which we was just alike. All that I rec'lect o' the Yanks we used to run into on the China station was that they was dressed diff'rent from us, talked diff'rent, and even swore diff'rent. The way they cussed struck me most of all. It was so earnest like. That was the thing I remembered 'em best for—as the blokes wot cussed like they was sayin' their prayers."

And so it was that the British and American bluejackets remembered each other for their differences rather than for the traits they had in common. Naturally the picture was a distorted one on both sides. But when, with the coming of the American ships to European waters, the first chance to get together and become really acquainted was offered, each soon began to see the other in the proper perspective, and from the very first they have become better and better friends with every day that went by.

A good many British sailors have told me during the last few months of the increasing ties of friendship and kinship that were knitting between them and the "Yanks;" but perhaps some extracts from an article which has just appeared in the little monthly magazine published by the lower deck of one of the battleships of the Grand Fleet will give the best idea of the way things have gone in this respect. It was signed "Bluejacket," and I have learned that the writer is a seaman gunner who, like the great majority of his mates, never met any of his cousins from across the Atlantic until the American battleship squadron joined the Grand Fleet last winter.

"We had all heard a good deal of the Yankee fleet" (it begins), "and a few of us had seen Yankee ships before in our voyages abroad; but to the most of us their manners and customs were a sealed book, and many curious glances were cast toward their battleships after their arrival to take their place beside us just to catch a glimpse of an American sailor. We all had our various ideas of what they were really like, and I am giving away no secret when I say that we did not expect them to come up to our standard, or to be very much our own kind. This was inevitable owing to the feeling fostered by some sections of the British press during the preceding years of the war in which America had been neutral. Consequently we were more than a little surprised on meeting them ashore for the first time to find them such very good fellows. Perhaps the thing that surprised us most about them was to find that there was less difference between the English that they talked than there was between that of the Cockney and the Scotchman, or the Cornishman and the Yorkshireman, or the Welshman and the Lancashireman. That is to say, it was easier for the run of us to understand them than it was for us to understand each other. But the thing that we liked best about them was the quiet way they had of speaking. This, I must admit again, was also a great surprise to us, for the Yankee of our funny papers and music-halls was invariably very loud-mouthed and boastful. They had some rather fearful and wonderful slang, it is true, but the most of it was so expressive that we had not the least difficulty, first, in following it, and then beginning to adopt it for our own use. For instance, it was as easy to see that 'Some class, those shooting irons on the Lizzie' referred to the 15-inch guns of the Queen Elizabeth, as it was to see that 'pretty nifty with his hot footing, hey bo?' referred to the way Charley Chaplin was kicking out with his feet in the movie (there, I have dropped into a 'Yankeeism' myself! Nothing could be more catching) at the Y. M. C. A. hut. We have probably been borrowing more of their language than they have of ours so far, for many of the Yankeeisms seem to go right to the spot so much better than ordinary English.

"Our first meetings on shore got on so well that we decided to get up some kind of a game with them. It was out of the question for us to try to play their baseball or football, just as it was for them to tackle our cricket. But we had heard that one of their ships had been having a try at our association football, and on the strength of this we sent them a challenge for a game of 'soccer.' The fact that they jumped at the chance to take us on at a game which they had practically no experience at is the best evidence of the kind of sporting spirit we have found the Yanks showing about everything.

"When the time for the game came, there is no denying that we began to get rather nervous; not because we were not sure we were going to give them a licking (for ours is the champion soccer team of the Grand Fleet), but because we weren't quite sure what we were going up against. (There goes another Yankeeism, just because it puts the thing better than any words in our own language.) We had read of what a shambles the field at an American football game was, and of how the men fought in armor, like the knights of the crusades, and of how each team was attended by its own stretcher-bearers and casualty clearing-station. Frankly, we were afraid that they might take the occasion to 'Yankefy' soccer along these lines. As a precautionary measure, we made a point of getting shore leave

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for just as many men as possible, so as to be sure of being in sufficient force to back up our boys if it came to a fight for life. Indeed, we were much relieved to find on landing that the British bluejackets outnumbered the American by three to one and that there were no evidences of hospital arrangements.

"Of course we beat them, for our team had years' experience of the game where theirs had days', but the game was keenly contested all the way, and the score of six to one in our favor was by no means as one-sided as we could have piled up against many of the British ships of the Grand Fleet. There was no sentiment about it, either; we licked them as bad as we could. Their training in the Yankee game had made them quick to master the main points of the British, and the result was that they had made a progress in the latter which must have been just about a record considering only one or two of them had ever seen soccer before. We heard them cursing each other a bit now and then in an effort to stiffen up their defense, but so far as we were concerned they displayed nothing but the cleanest kind of sportsmanship. By their showing on this occasion we were prepared to hear, as we did shortly, that this same Yankee team had won games of soccer from two or three of the British battleships and battle-cruisers. Nothing but their greater interest in baseball, which they were able to take up in the spring, has prevented the Yanks from turning out a football team that would have been a real contender for the Grand Fleet championship, and, even as it is, they have given us an example of their adaptability, quick-wittedness, and sportsmanship that has won the admiration and respect of everybody.

"But it was not till the long days of summer came and shore leave was granted more liberally that we had a chance to really form friendships with our new allies. Perhaps it was baseball that helped us more than anything else in getting acquainted. The Commander-in-Chief having provided suitable grounds, a baseball league was formed of the teams of the several American battleships, and from the very start these games provided a very strong counter-attraction to our own football matches. There might be a half-dozen football games in progress, but the moment the wild yelling from down in front of the pavilion told that a baseball game was under way all the spectators melted away at once, and sometimes even the players themselves chucked their hands in and went over to see the antics of the Yanks. It was these antics—rooting, I think they call it, though I don't quite know why—that attracted us at first; but we were not long in finding out what they were driving at and really following the progress of the game. Certainly none of us have ever seen the ball handled with such dexterity, both in the way it was caught and the way it was thrown, and the best cricket seemed dull and tame in comparison. We especially admired the quickness of the players on their feet, both in fielding and running around the bases. Few British bluejackets could show such speed, and we have decided the Yankees are faster because they are all shorter service men than we are, and so have had less time to get slow and beefy through ship life. We hope to make our beef and bulk tell against them in boxing and rowing. They tell us that it takes ten years to make a good baseball player, and we can well believe it. As none of us are yet ready to acknowledge the possibility of the war lasting that long, it is hardly likely that we shall try to turn out any teams with the idea of nosing the Yanks out of the baseball championship of the Grand Fleet, but all the same we are fully determined to tackle the game for the game's sake, and to play it among ourselves as we get a chance. The British matelot never did have the patience to play cricket, but baseball has so much that cricket lacks that it is by no means impossible that he may take to it in time, just as our Canadian cousins have. In the meantime our old song which goes, 'We'll ramp and we'll roar like true British sailors,' will have to be sung, 'We'll ramp and we'll roar like Yankee baseballers,' for there is no question that they can outramp and outroar us with several cables-lengths to spare.

"The baseball games have given us a welcome chance to show our friendship for the American bluejackets. It is the custom to provide each member of a British shore-leave party with tickets good for two pints of beer at the Recreation Club. The Yank ships, being teetotalers, did not do this, and so the poor chaps would have had to get on without any beer if we had not come to their rescue. Soon it became quite the regular thing for a British sailor to provide his Yankee chum with half his beer tickets, and, as many of the days were sweltering hot, you may believe they were appreciated. As the present beer we get does not contain enough alcohol to intoxicate a fly, American mothers need have no fear that there is anything in this action calculated to lead their sailor boys astray.

"I need hardly say that the Yanks have reciprocated every time they had a chance. I was having tea at the Naval Club a few days ago, and, having neglected to bring any sugar ashore from the ship, I was about to do the best I could without it, when an American sailor reached over from the next table and handed me his ration, saying that he had come provided with an extra for just that purpose. And it was fine white sugar, too. I have seen the same thing happen a number of times. The Yanks seem to be allowed an extra lot of sugar and sweets to make up for not having grog. They tell me that they don't miss the latter very badly, and I can't say that they seem any the worse for not having it. Perhaps that is the one thing that we have worried most about since the Yankees came—as to whether or not their example would cause the British ships to 'go dry' too. Who can say? Stranger things have happened, but the change will hardly come during the war, anyhow.

"The few weeks' sport at this base gave the men a chance to meet in such a way that they could form real friendships, and I know of a number of instances where British sailors have asked Yankees to visit them in their homes if ever there is a chance that the leaves work out favorable to that arrangement. We found that we had a great many things in common with them, so much so that, writing some weeks after these meetings, it seems awkward to speak of them as Yanks at all, they have become so much part and parcel of ourselves.

"I cannot close this without mentioning an amusing incident which occurred to a messmate of mine. This chap was told off for patrol duty at the railway station, and, as was usual, had a Yankee sailor as a partner, the latter being provided with a small truncheon, according to their custom. The British lad who was a good deal of a youngster, got interested in the stick and asked many questions, to all of which the American replied with the greatest good humor. Among other things, he said the truncheon was loaded and that it was used for quieting obstreperous sailors. After this my friend kept his distance, and on returning to his mess explained to an attentive crowd all the happenings of the afternoon, ending up by saying that he took no chances with that 'loaded gun' stick, as he was afraid it might go off by mistake. It appears that he actually thought that a 'loaded' stick meant one that 'went off' when a man was hit with it. You may be sure that we lost no time in passing the joke on to the Yanks, who appear to be enjoying it quite as much as we have. Indeed, perhaps the surest sign of the good solid base our friendship is built on is the fact that it has long ago reached the 'joking' stage—the one at which we both feel quite free to throw aside 'company manners' and 'rag' each other without fear of being misunderstood or hurting any one's feelings. And that, let me tell you, means that we've at last got out a sheet anchor that ought to keep the bark of our common friendship head-to-wind through any storm that is ever likely to threaten to swamp it."

I do not think there is much that I need add to this naïve but comprehensive statement of the way in which the Yankee bluejacket has impressed his fellows of the British navy. The life of the Grand Fleet is a strenuous one, and at times many weeks may go by in which there is no opportunity for the men to foregather ashore. How well these rare opportunities have been used by the British and American sailors to become acquainted is evidenced by the frequency with which the officers doing the ship's censoring come across letters from one to the other, and the cordiality of the feeling which is springing up may be judged by the fact that the commonest form of address is, "Dear Chum." The friendships which are growing between the thousands of Americans and Britons who are holding the seas to-day will be of incalculable influence in strengthening the bonds of international amity between the two nations upon whom most of the responsibility will rest in determining the future of civilization.

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WEEKLY OUTLINE STUDY OF CURRENT HISTORY

BY J. MADISON GATHANY, A.M.
HOPE STREET HIGH SCHOOL, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

Based on The Outlook of July 31, 1918

Each week an Outline Study of Current History based on the preceding number of The Outlook will be printed for the benefit of current events classes, debating clubs, teachers of history and of English, and the like, and for use in the home and by such individual readers as may desire suggestions in the serious study of current history.—THE EDITORS.

[Those who are using the weekly outline should not attempt to cover the whole of an outline in any one lesson or study. Assign for one lesson selected questions, one or two propositions for discussion, and only such words as are found in the material assigned. Or distribute selected questions among different members of the class or group and have them report their findings to all when assembled. Then have all discuss the questions together.]

I—INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

A. Topic: The Execution of Nicholas II; Something Besides Watchful Waiting; The Builder of the Murman Railway.

Reference: Pages 506–508.

Questions:

1. What are the facts about the execution of Nicholas II as reported in The Outlook? 2. The manner of the death of the ex-Czar arouses in The Outlook "pity for the victim." What reasons are given or implied? 3. What does this execution lead you to think of the Bolsheviki? Was it done in the cause of democracy? 4. The Outlook makes some comparisons as to the executions of Louis XIV and Charles I with that of Nicholas II. Review the conditions in France and England at the times referred to. Make some comparisons of your own. 5. Would you have helped execute Louis and Charles? Can you point out actual good results due to these executions? 6. The Outlook refers to certain weaknesses of Nicholas II, the "'dark influences' about him," the "Black Hundred," the "persecution of the Jews," and "the unspeakable Rasputin." Do you know the significance of these things in Russian history? (See references below.) 7. To what do the Romanoffs owe the loss of their throne? 8. Show why "it is vitally necessary that an adequate supply of troops should protect the Murman Railway." 9. In an editorial entitled "How to Save Russia" discuss the duty of America and her allies toward Russia. 10. Read "The Eclipse of Russia," by E. J. Dillon (Doran)—exceedingly valuable; "Rasputin and the Russian Revolution," by Princess Radziwill (John Lane).

B. Topic: A New British Empire.

Reference: Pages 514, 515.

Questions:

Note.—Make this topic the basis of a study, not only of the British Empire as such, but of Great Britain's place and influence in world affairs. 1. Explain the proper use of the following terms: England, the English, Great Britain, the British, the British Empire, the dominions. 2. How many commonwealths are there in the British Empire? Name them, and give a few facts about the relationship of each of these to Great Britain. 3. Describe in a few sentences the governments these commonwealths possess. 4. What are the bonds that unite the British Empire? Give reasons why the self-governing parts of Great Britain do not seek absolute independence. 5. Explain the meaning of The Outlook's statement: "Its assembling [the Imperial War Cabinet] at this time is Lloyd George's way of cutting the Gordian knot of constitutional anomalies." 6. Present a plan of Imperial Government for the British Empire which you think would not sacrifice the autonomy of its self-governing parts and yet would provide for joint control of common affairs. 7. England is known as the "mother of parliaments." Tell the story of the development and the establishment of democracy in England. 8. To what extent has Great Britain furthered democracy in the world at large? Discuss liberally. 9. Has England done her share in this war? 10. Read the following valuable books: "The English-Speaking Peoples," by G. L. Beer (Macmillan); "English Constitutional History," by G. B. Adams (Yale University Press); Mrs. Humphry Ward's two masterly and inspiring books, "England's Effort" and "Towards the Goal" (Scribners).

II—NATIONAL AFFAIRS

Topic: Transfigured Youth.

Reference: Editorial, pages 511, 512

Questions:

Note.—The following questions are directed to the youth of America. It is high time every young American began to think seriously and deeply of his relation to our great Republic and the cause of freedom. 1. Tell the things in the life and record of Quentin Roosevelt which you admire. Just why do you admire these? 2. Tell in your own way what you think The Outlook's opinion of Quentin Roosevelt is and the lessons it would have every young American learn from him. 3. Do you think it right to expect more of a member of the President's or a former President's family than of yourself? 4. Do you realize that you are *now* creating the public opinion of the next generation of Americans? Explain why this is so. 5. Do you realize that the young Germans are really to be your actual competitors after this war? State what you think you should do about it. 6. To what extent is the preservation of American ideals and principles dependent upon you? Discuss. 7. Are you in the habit of reading valuable and inspiring books and trying to appreciate public affairs? Write a report in answer. 8. What beliefs and ideals are you going to champion in America from now on? You should read "The Youth and the Nation," by H. H. Moore (Macmillan); "Abraham Lincoln," by W. F. Gordy (Scribners); "The Soul of Democracy," by E. H. Griggs (Macmillan); Hagedorn's "You Are the Hope of the World" (Macmillan).

III—PROPOSITIONS FOR DISCUSSION

(These propositions are suggested directly or indirectly by the subject-matter of The Outlook, but not discussed in it.)

1. The most significant fact in all modern history is the rise of the *bourgeoisie*. 2. The only real weapon of international justice is force. 3. Democracy is a way of life.

IV—VOCABULARY BUILDING

(All of the following words and expressions are found in The Outlook for July 31, 1918. Both before and after looking them up in the dictionary or elsewhere, give their meaning *in your own words*. The figures in parentheses refer to pages on which the words may be found.)

Siberia, Czechoslovaks, Archangel (507); local autonomy, federalism, naturalization, the Maharaja (514).

A booklet suggesting methods of using the Weekly Outline of Current History will be sent on application

THE NEW BOOKS

This Department will include descriptive notes, with or without brief comments, about books received by The Outlook. Many of the important books will have more extended and critical treatment later

FICTION

Barbara Picks a Husband. By Hermann Hagedorn. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.

This novel of New York social life is written with vivacity and good-natured irony. Mr Hagedorn is eminently successful in making the reader see his Barbara, whose view of life is that of a self-indulgent, pleasure-loving, and totally indiscriminating butterfly. Perhaps he is almost too successful, for, although one suspects that the author likes Barbara, the reader finds it difficult to forgive her vanity and selfishness and wonders how they can be forgiven by the fine and steadfast young man who is finally "picked." In a sense, this is a capital "summer book," for it is agreeable and lively reading; but it also is of value as a study of life and character.

Khaki. By Freeman Tilden. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.25.

It seems almost like ancient history now to think of towns in the United States not awakened to the war. But it is only a few months since the author's "Tredick" was typical of hundreds of such places. The awakening of this slow-thinking, slow-moving little place to the actuality of war is finely rendered. In the person of Miss Prudence Perkins the author has a capital example of a woman of energy, character, patriotism, and humor. Indeed, Miss Prudence is really worth all the other people in the book put together. There is action in this story, and we predict that it will make itself read everywhere.

HISTORY, POLITICAL ECONOMY, AND POLITICS

Eclipse of Russia (The). By E. J. Dillon. The George H. Doran Company, New York. $4.

Dr. Dillon knows the strength and weakness of the Russian people. He lived in Russia for years, met the leaders of Russian democracy, studied the welcome advance of the undercurrent of democracy during the last Imperial régime, and has written much for Russian as well as for American papers. This book is planned with care and thought. It deals satisfactorily and calmly with the dramatic and thrilling events of recent Russian history.

Passing of the Great Race (The); or, The Racial Basis of European History. By Madison Grant. New Edition. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $2.

This is a new edition of a notable book. In the revision certain phases of the description of the European races which have special reference to the war are emphasized, as might be expected. In his Introduction Professor Henry Fairfield Osborn notes that in a recent journey along the Pacific coast the faces of the men in the regiments about to leave revealed a predominance of the Anglo-Saxon type. The war is to take a heavy toll of that strain of Anglo-Saxon life which has played such an important part in American history. The author explains European history in terms of race—that is to say, in terms of physical and psychical character instead of political grouping and a spoken language.

WAR BOOKS

Making a Soldier. By Major-General William A. Pew. Richard G. Badger, Boston. $1.

In the making of a soldier it is, of course, essential that he be physically developed, that he be trained to conserve health, and

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The New Books (Continued)

that he perform with technical skill his part in every incident. But besides these qualifications, asserts General Pew in this volume, he must have the mind of a soldier. The book tells how the mind of a soldier is attained, and what there is in human nature out of which it is built. Human nature with respect to military habits has to do with many qualities—pugnacity, emulation, play, self-assertion, self-abasement, gregariousness, fear—and other things, concerning which the terse language of this volume aptly informs us. It comprises the training camp lectures delivered by its author; and his hammering of such material into the cadets made last summer's Reserve Officers' Training Camp at Williamstown a success.

Out to Win. The Story of America in France. By Lieutenant Coningsby Dawson. The John Lane Company, New York. $1.25.

Mr. Dawson's new book, like its predecessors, not only *should* have a wide reading, but inevitably *will* have such a reading. The first chapter, which deals with the deplorable people who are patriotic in the limited sense only, who cannot bring themselves to work whole-heartedly with our allies, who exercise a depressing and mournful influence at every opportunity, is enlightening. It should be read by all half-hearted people. Lieutenant Dawson visited the American Army in France; for the most part his book is an account of that visit, the appreciation of American vigor and power, and a confident prophecy of American success in the war.

U-Boat Hunters (The). By James B. Connolly. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. New York. $1.50.

Mr. Connolly had what we believe was the unique opportunity of sailing on an American destroyer in British waters engaged in actual war work convoying troopships and hunting submarines. He tells a marvelous story of skill, endurance, and courage on the part of our seamen abroad. Perhaps he harps a little too much on the martinet type of the British admiral, but the chaff is good-natured enough. Few magazine writers have such direct force and vividness of description as mark the articles here collected in book form. The author has proved this many times, but never so finely as in this book.

EDUCATIONAL

Education for Life. The Story of Hampton Institute. By Francis Greenwood Peabody. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., Garden City. $2.50.

This is no dry-as-dust compilation of college statistics, but a vital and inspiring story of the growth of an influence that has greatly blessed American life. Every enlightened Negro should own or read it, and the enlightenment of large numbers of white men and women would be promoted by a knowledge of the facts spread forth so convincingly on these pages.

MISCELLANEOUS

Spirit of Democracy (The). By Lyman P. Powell and Gertrude W. Powell. Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago.

Pupils called upon for declamations are often at a loss to know where to find declamations that fit in with the events of these great days. Here is a book containing selections from the President, the two ex-Presidents, other speakers and writers of contemporary distinction, and a few selections from literature of other days that apply to what is happening now. The book contains both prose and verse, and the selections have been made with discrimination.

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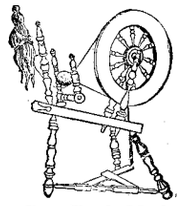

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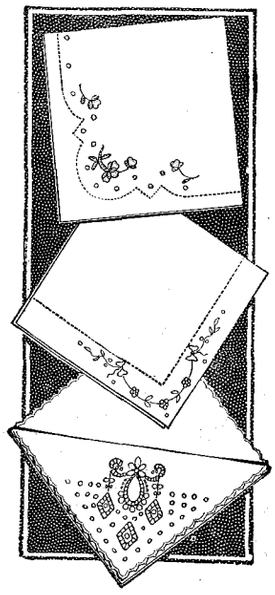

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IF you are in the habit of buying The Outlook at a news-stand, it will be to your advantage to place a standing order with your newsdealer. The War Industries Board has requested publishers to discontinue the acceptance of unsold copies from newsdealers, and in conformity with that request The Outlook will be non-returnable after September 1. To prevent loss, therefore, newsdealers must limit their orders to actual sales. Buyers at news-stands may co-operate and avoid disappointment by giving their dealer a standing order for the weekly delivery of The Outlook.

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—GEORGE HODGES, *Dean Episcopal Theological School, Cambridge.*

Ask for "THE NEW DEATH" ($1.25 *net*) at your bookstore or write for it to the publishers, Houghton Mifflin Company, 4 Park Street, Boston

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THE NATION'S INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS

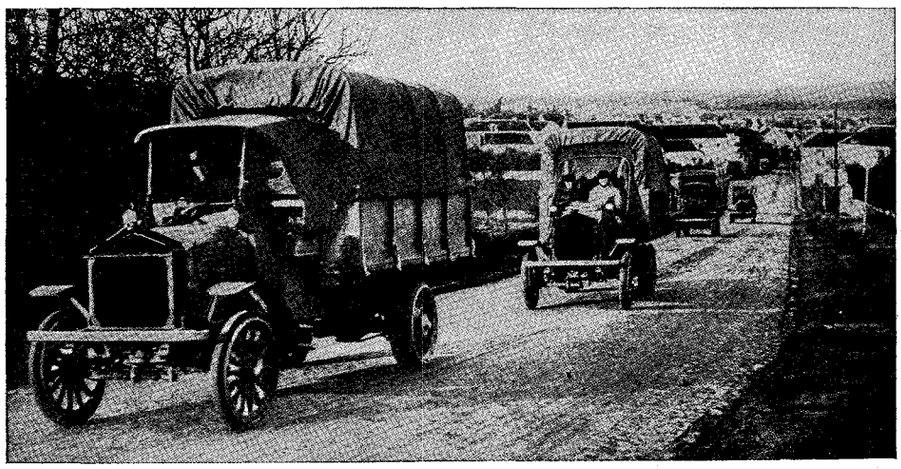
Believing that the advance of business is a subject of vital interest and importance, The Outlook will present under the above heading frequent discussions of subjects of industrial and commercial interest. The department will include paragraphs of timely interest and articles of educational value dealing with the industrial upbuilding of the Nation. Comment and suggestions are invited.

SHIPPING VIA THE HIGHWAYS

BY ROY D. CHAPIN

(From the "Nation's Business")

IN the last six months there has come to our view an entirely new picture of transportation in America. We are standing at the threshold of wonderful new developments. We have seen the railroads taken over by the United States Government, and, simultaneously, we have seen the highways of the country taken over by the people for the purpose of hauling goods which could not be hauled during the period of railroad congestion by the railroads themselves.



In the whole history of transportation, highway transportation has been the patient drudge. Suddenly the motor truck has come forward and has supplied for the highways what the steam-engines supply for the railroads and the electric car supplies for the interurban systems—rapid transit. And this has brought about many new conditions.

These conditions pertain not only to the roadbed itself, but also to the development of types of traffic which we, I think, have not yet seen or pictured in our imagination.

Governmental recognition was given to this fact, and it finally resulted in the establishment of the Highway Transport Committee of the Council of National Defense. This Committee, of which I am chairman, is the first committee or organization of any authority under the Government which has ever paid any attention to highways traffic.

A great increase in transportation efficiency must come from the motor transport, and, that being so, our Committee has directed its efforts to the study of the possibility of motor transportation. The motor transport fills a niche that is not filled by any other means of haulage. It takes goods from the door of the shipper to the door of the consignee without change or rehandling.

Sometimes it takes a freight car moving out of the big terminals as much time to arrive at its destination, which may be at a distance of only thirty or forty miles, as it would take that same car to travel hundreds of miles if it were directed along the main line of the railroad. This means that that short-haul movement is cluttering that terminal, and any railroad man—at any rate, any I have talked with so far—will say that it is the terminal to-day that is the crux of our present tie-up. The getting of freight cars through the terminal and back on to the main line again solves that problem.

Daniel Willard said to me, when I first came to Washington, that there was no serious problem moving on the main line; the terminal was always the neck of the bottle. He said also, shortly after our Committee was appointed, "I see a new ideal in transportation which I could not see before I came to Washington. I see transportation in the future—that is, traffic given to that means of transportation which can best and most economically and most quickly carry that traffic.

"I recognize the utility of the motor truck in its particular field. It can carry a portion of that traffic. Go ahead and see what you can do to put that traffic on the highways that legitimately belongs on the highways."

To-day most of our larger cities, especially, I think, in the Eastern zone, where traffic congestion is the worst, have established intercity truck lines, plying back and forth on a regular schedule, carrying goods at a more rapid rate than either the railroads or express lines, and in many instances taking them right from your door and delivering them to the door of your consignee. These motor-truck lines will soon form a perfect network throughout the United States, and they will live, not because they are well financed, not because they are run by an enthusiast, but they will live on a competitive basis where they can prove that they will carry that traffic more quickly, more expeditiously, and more safely than any other means of transportation. That is the future of the intercity truck line in our transportation plans.

When we went into this thing last fall, we found that the Connecticut Council of Defense, because of very serious freight congestion, being tied up as they never had been before, were considering this same proposition. At our suggestion, they adopted the English plan, and established throughout the entire State fourteen "return loads bureaus."

What happens now in Connecticut? Suppose, as a manufacturer, you are sending your motor truck from Hartford to Waterbury. You want to ship a load up there to some man you are doing business with in Waterbury. That motor truck must come back, and you have no load for it. It does not pay you to ship a truck up to Waterbury and have it come back unloaded. You go to Waterbury, your truck arrives there, and your driver calls up the Waterbury Return Loads Bureau and says, "Have you a load for Hartford?"

The business of that Return Loads Bureau in Waterbury, just as in any other city in Connecticut, is to know what the merchants and manufacturers have in the way of loads radiating out from their city. The loads are registered with them. This driver is very liable—not certain, but very liable—to have a truck-load going back either to Hartford or some other point on the way.

That does not sound very big when applied to one State, but I am glad to say that the same idea is rapidly coming into use elsewhere.

It is not only by intercity service that the motor trucks can lessen the pressure on the railroads. They can do it as well by helping when freight has reached its destination. For some time past we have been working with the Railroad Administration on the problem of getting freight moved more rapidly from the freight station to the consignee. Congestion in terminals very frequently means that the freight which comes into the station, instead of going out rapidly, is left there on the floor of the station for some period of time, very frequently longer than the free time allowed it. The freight stations of this country have become storage warehouses. And it is for that reason that in the large congested centers we have embargoes.

These problems came to us last fall, and we commenced the highways work. We found in the State of Maryland a very wonderful system of rural express wagons in operation. These rural express wagons start from the farms and run into Baltimore or Washington. Some of them come in a distance of forty-seven miles every day, carrying produce from the farm into the city. Those lines, in the main, reach farms that are not on the railways or not upon any interurban lines.

What does a truck on one of these lines do? It passes every farmer's door. The farmer knows what time the rural express will come along. He puts out at his front gate whatever he wants to ship to the city. It may be a case of eggs or a can of milk; there may be cream, and there may be an occasional piece of live stock. The goods are tagged to show to whom they are to go. The motor express picks up the shipment and goes on to the next stop. The goods are either delivered to the consignee, who may be an "ultimate consumer," a commission house, or a merchant, or they may go into the freight station of the motor-express route. And that car turns right around in Washington or Baltimore, as the case may be, and picks up from the merchants of the city the commodities that the farmer wants, and then it takes them back and drops them at the gate of the farmer. That is round-trip service. . . .

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BY THE WAY

The importance of differentiating between those who are dangerously color-blind—that is, unable at all times to distinguish between red and green—and those who are only slightly color-blind is brought out in a recent study conducted by the United States Public Health Service and reported in Public Health Bulletin No. 92. The following classes are regarded as dangerously color-blind, and therefore to be excluded from positions in which they would be required to read colored signal lights: (1) Those who are able to see but three or less colors in the spectrum (the normal person sees six or seven); (2) those who see more than three colors in the spectrum, but who have the red end so shortened as to prevent the recognition of a red light at a distance of two miles; and (3) those with a central scotoma (that is, a blind or partially blind area in the field of vision) for red and green.

Another feature of the investigation was the study of the prevalence of color-blindness. Excluding those able to distinguish five colors in the spectrum, it was found that color-blindness occurs in about 8.6 per cent of men and 2.2 per cent of women. Color-blindness of a degree dangerous in occupations requiring the recognition of colored signal lights was found to occur in about 3.1 per cent of men and .7 per cent of women. Among refractive conditions of the eye, color-blindness occurs least frequently in eyes apparently without demonstrable refractive error; it occurs most frequently in eyes showing mixed astigmatism.

Auburn, New York, has a seventy-two-year-old messenger boy. Although retired from active work, he decided he could do some war service by taking some young man's place with the telegraph company. "I have had some amusing experiences," he remarked recently. "I answered one call, and the man said: 'Are you from the Western Union?' I replied that I was. 'Well,' he said, 'I wanted a boy, not the president of the company.' There was another call to the St. Cloud, and I went. The man said: 'Are you a boy?' But before I could answer another man remarked, facetiously, 'He was when you called.'"

How fast can a dog run? "Trout and Stream," which is an authority on out-of-doors matters, says:

> Eskimo dogs can travel forty-five miles in five hours, according to an authority, who relates that he once drove his dog team seven miles in half an hour. Ordinary domestic dogs, at full speed, run at the rate of from thirty-three to forty-nine feet a second; setters and pointers, about eighteen and a half to twenty-one and seven-tenths miles an hour, and they can maintain this speed for two, or even three hours. Foxhounds are very fast, and in a recent trial one of them beat a thoroughbred horse, covering four miles in six and a half minutes. Greyhounds can run at the rate of fifty-nine to seventy-five feet a second. Horses cannot exceed sixty-three feet a second.

It is said that probably the oldest officer of his rank on the active list in any army is First Lieutenant Richard Peters, of Washington, D. C., who is seventy-four years old and is now with the American Expeditionary Force overseas. When the Army first went to France, he served for a time as an interpreter attached to General Pershing's headquarters. He was recently commissioned a first lieutenant and assigned to active duty.

A classical student suggests that the unity of democracy hereafter will be in accordance with the famous prophecy of Helenus, son of Priam, as told by Virgil in the third book of the Æneid:

> "Hereafter the kindred cities and peoples closely related,
> Epirote, Hesperian, one in their ancestry, likewise
> In fortune the same—of both we will make in their spirit
> One Troy. Let this duty descend from us to the children of children."

A triumph of civilization is thus described by "American Medicine:" "In the Spanish-American campaign 86 per cent of all deaths were due to typhoid fever, which attacked and weakened practically 20 per cent of the small army employed for a few months. In 1911 anti-typhoid inoculation was made compulsory in the United States Army. From September 21, 1917, to January 25, 1918, a period one month longer than that involved in the Spanish-American conflict, there was an average of over 742,000 men in American cantonments and camps, and only 114 cases of typhoid fever occurred."

Mr. Brand Whitlock said in an address in Washington: "My war experiences have done me good. They have broadened my mind. I am a writer rather than a politician, and we writers live too restricted lives. You know the story of Carlyle and his sound-proof room in Chelsea. Carlyle had built a sound-proof room for himself on the top of his house. The room had no windows, but only a skylight for illuminating purposes. To an elderly visitor from Craigenputtock the room was shown proudly by Carlyle, and the visitor gave a cackling laugh and said: 'My conscience, this is fine! Here ye may write and study the best o' yer life and nobody be a bit the wiser.'"

Apropos of the discussion of the question "Should we pray for the Kaiser?" a correspondent pertinently remarks: "The question might be settled with much satisfaction as well as brevity with the prayer said to have been offered by a minister in a Northern church during our Civil War: 'O Lord, bless our enemies, with defeat in the field and repentance in their hearts.'"

A teacher in an Indian agricultural school in South Dakota writes us that the loyalty of the Sioux in that region is astonishing. Many have quietly enlisted without fuss or hurrah, but with great determination. She adds: "My neighbor, Frisking Elk, who lost a leg befriending the whites in the old hostile days, expresses the wish that he had the missing limb that he might now go and fight; but he adds: 'I do not think much of the way the white man fights now. He sleeps, then he eats, then he rests a while, then he fights, then he eats. No, that is not the way. When I used to fight, I used to go three, four, and five days without eating.'"

In these days of unreliable foreign mails the British practice of insuring overseas mails by means of an extra carbon copy of all letters, posted by a later boat, is obtaining deserved acceptance in this country. It is no more trouble to make two carbons than a single one, and an extra stamp is about all the expense. One copy is practically certain to arrive, if not both.

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COLLIES make the best pals. Handsome, intelligent and faithful. Grown dogs and puppies from best imported winning dogs. Price and particulars, H. H. Shields, Bennington, Vt.

BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

I wish to purchase or lease a girls' school near Philadelphia. Please give details in reply. 6,122, Outlook.

HELP WANTED

Companions and Domestic Helpers

MOTHER'S helper.—Refined young woman wanted in September to go to Washington, D. C., for winter as mother's helper. Write, giving full details, M. E. S., 810 Broad St., Newark, N. J.

WANTED, mother's assistant. A young woman of refinement, experience not necessary. Box 15, South Windsor, Conn.

MOTHER'S helper, non-German. Youth, refinement, character, essential, experience not necessary. Three children. Christian family. 6,125, Outlook.

HELP WANTED

Companions and Domestic Helpers

NURSE for two small children to assist with housekeeping in summer cottage. Good salary. Give full particulars. Helen Ware, Arden, Del. Wilmington Auto Route.

Teachers and Governesses

WANTED—Competent teachers for public and private schools and colleges. Send for bulletin. Albany Teachers' Agency, Albany, N.Y.

GOVERNESS wanted to teach and be companion to boy and girl 9 and 7 years. Reply, giving references. Position to be filled in September. 6,118, Outlook.

WANTED—Young French governess with experience and highest references for New Haven position about September 15. 6,123, Outlook.

GOVERNESSES, matrons, mothers' helpers, cafeteria managers, dietitians. Miss Richards, 537 Howard Building, Providence. Boston, 16 Jackson Hall, Trinity Court, Thursdays, 11 to 1.

TEACHERS desiring school or college positions apply International Musical and Educational Agency, Carnegie Hall, N. Y.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Business Situations

WANTED—A position with desirable family as responsible chauffeur with experience of eighteen years. Best of references. Trustworthy in every respect. Address Michael Ryan, care Doran, 173 East 88th St., New York City.

Companions and Domestic Helpers

COMPANION or nurse to semi-invalid by American lady of experience. References exchanged. 6,102, Outlook.

LADY desires position as superintendent matron of institution, preferably children's private home. Experienced, refined, best recommendations. At liberty September 1. 6,109, Outlook.

HOUSEMOTHER, chaperon, and general supervisor, 14 years' experience in girls' private schools, wishes similar position. 6,128, Outlook.

PLEASANT, middle-aged teacher would like position as companion or attendant. Box 237, Stafford Springs, Conn.

Teachers and Governesses

TEACHER of sub-normal child, broad training, valuable experience, capable full charge, invites correspondence. 6,117, Outlook.

TEACHER, experienced, Cornell 1916. Phi Beta Kappa, desires position commensurate in opportunity with her preparation and ability. English, Latin, mathematics. Excellent references. 6,120, Outlook.

TUTOR.—Experienced teacher, French, Italian, studied abroad, wants position. Would take pupils to mountains for August, September. Pleasant companion. 6,121, Outlook.

TEACHER desires position, governess or private teaching. Higher grade in public school accepted if desirably located. 6,127, Outlook.

MISCELLANEOUS

PATRIOTISM by Lyman Abbott, also 4 verses of America—The Pledge to the Flag—2 verses of The Star-Spangled Banner, all in a little leaflet. Further the cause of Patriotism by distributing in your letters, in pay envelopes, in schools, churches, clubs, and social gatherings. 200 sent prepaid for 30 cents. Arthur M. Morse, Montclair, N. J.

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WANTED—Defective persons to board. Address W., Pawling, N. Y.

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